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ABSTRACT

Guidelines to help ERIC microfiche collection holders acquaint lay persons in their community with the resources available through the ERIC information network are provided. The guidelines were developed following on-site interviews with persons who have expertise in information dissemination and/or who are actively involved in providing information to citizens involved in educational decision making. The document is organized into six sections in addition to the short introduction. Section 2 presents an historical overview of citizen participation in education and discusses the implication of citizen involvement in education for ERIC microfiche collection holders. Section 3 contains the guidelines for ERIC collection holders who wish to develop a citizen outreach program in their service areas. Section 4, an annotated bibliography of materials dealing with citizen participation in education, suggests resource material to help implement the guidelines. Section 5 contains suggestions on how to conduct a workshop for citizen groups. Finally, section 6 describes an action plan for educational problem solving. (Author/DE)

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ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies Social Science Education

SO 008 821

Boulder, Colorado

GUIDELINES FOR ERIC COLLECTION HOLDERS: OUTREACH TO CITIZENS CONCERNED WITH EDUCATIONAL DECISION MAKING

by

Regina McCormick

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PREFACE

During the past decade community involvement in educational decision making has gained momentum. In an effort to influence the decision-making process, community members have formed citizen advisory boards, community liaison groups, and other kinds of organizations. Other decision-making groups composed of local citizens have long been part of the American educational scene--boards of education, school committees, parent-teacher associations, legislatures, and city councils. These latter groups make all kinds of decisions, including textbook adoption policy, plans for integration, facilities construction, and bargaining procedures.

All individuals and groups involved in the educational decision-making process need to be well informed. The ERIC system can make available a variety of materials that will help them. The ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education has been particularly interested in helping people--educators and lay persons--learn about and use the ERIC system.

During the past year the ERIC system of clearinghouses has made a special effort to establish close contact with organizations and institutions that hold microfiche collections. Through a series of workshops, microfiche collection holders came to know more about the operation of the ERIC system. This publication is part of the effort to assist microfiche collection holders do a better job in working with their client groups, especially community organizations. This publication offers some concrete procedural suggestions, as well as hands-on materials, that should enable collection holders to become more effective in providing services to community groups.

James E. Davis
Associate Director, Social Science Education Consortium, and
Associate Director, ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education

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I would also like to thank Carl L. Marburger of the National Committee for Citizens in Education (NCCE) for granting us permission to quote from the manuscript of the forthcoming NCCE volume, *Public Testimony on Public Schools*, to be published by McCutchan Publishing Corporation, Berkeley, California.

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and Fran Haley (SSEC) for their guidance and comments. Carol Hall (ERIC Clearinghouse for Rural Education and Small Schools), Stanley Salett (National Committee for Citizens in Education), and Carolyn Trahosky (Research and Information Services in Education) gave time willingly and freely to review the publication to determine its appropriateness and quality. Thanks are also due to Janet Jacobs who edited the manuscript and greatly improved its readability, to Carol Rayburn for her coordination of the typing, and to Cheryl Kuhn for a speedy and accurate typing job.

Regina McCormick

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1.0 Introduction

1.1 Purpose

In the past few years more and more parents and lay persons have beccme involved with the educational decision-making process. This upsurge of citizen activity and involvement has created a need on the part of lay persons for educational information. The ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education (ERIC/ChESS) has developed guidelines to help ERIC collection holders acquaint lay persons in their communities with the resources available through the ERIC information network.

1.2 Background

In order to determine the scope and content of this publication, we conducted telephone interviews with 15 ERIC clearinghouses and 21 ERIC collection holders. We asked questions about the level of interest in citizen participation in education and about methods the clearinghouses and collection holders had used to provide information services to lay persons. The interview data, as well as information obtained through a review of the literature, provided the basis for the first draft of the guidelines. This draft was then revised following on-site interviews with persons who have expertise in information dissemination and/or who are actively involved in providing information to citizens concerned with educational decision making.

During the on-site interviews we asked various organizations to react to the preliminary set of guidelines and to provide additional suggestions. Those groups who provided input include the National Committee for Citizens in Education, Columbia, Maryland; The Institute for Responsive Education, Boston, Massachusetts; The Detroit Task Force administrative staff, Detroit, Michigan; The Research and Information Services in Education, King of Prussia, Pennsylvania; The Education Resources Center, New Haven, Connecticut; and the Education Development Center, Newton, Massachusetts. The final version of the guidelines was reviewed by staff persons from an ERIC clearinghouse, an ERIC collection holder, and a citizen liaison group.

1.3 Organization

This document is organized into six sections in addition to this introduction. Section 2.0 contains an historical overview of citizen participation in education and discusses the implication of citizen involvement in education for ERIC collection holders. Section 3.0 contains the guidelines for ERIC collection holders who wish to develop a citizen outreach program in their service areas. Sections 4.0 through 7.0 contain resource materials to help implement the guidelines. Section 4.0 is an annotated bibliography of materials dealing with citizen participation in education. Section 5.0 contains suggestions about how to conduct a workshop for citizen groups. Section 6.0 describes an action plan for educational problem solving, and section 7.0 contains a sample information packet that could be used in answering information requests.

2.0 Citizen Participation in Education

2.1 Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries

In the American colonies of the 17th century, the family had direct control over the education of children. Parents were responsible for providing their children with vocational and social training and for teaching them to read, write, and understand the principles of religion and the laws of the land. Early laws required that elected town officials check periodically to see that parents were carrying out this responsibility (Cremin 1970, pp. 124-125).

In the middle of the 17th century, the Massachusetts General Court set the example soon followed by other states and acted to supplement this informal family education by the establishment of schools. The law of 1647 required that all towns of 50 families or more hire someone to teach reading and writing and that communities of 100 families or more establish a Latin grammar school. These early colonial schools were limited institutions, however, and the primary responsibility for education still remained with parents. Decisions concerning the building and financing of schools, the selection of teachers, school attendance, and other school policy matters were often made by the community in the town meeting (Welter 1962, p. 12).

One vivid example of how lay persons participated in education during this time is the change which took place in the Massachusetts grammar school curriculum as a result of the practical needs of the townspeople. The Massachusetts Bay Colony leaders wanted the town grammar schools to teach Latin and to serve as preparatory schools for those students who would attend Harvard and eventually become political leaders. The townspeople, on the other hand, wanted the grammar schools to teach the practical subjects of English, reading, writing, and arithmetic. To be in compliance with the 1647 law, and at the same time to realize their own immediate needs, voters of the community participated in town meetings and hired teachers who were able to teach Latin as well as more practical subjects. By the year 1700 all towns in Massachusetts had complied with the 1647 law and had established schools. However, the grammar schools had become schools of general studies and Latin had become a subject of

only secondary importance in the curriculum (Sloan 1971, p. 295).

As towns became larger and their population more complex, control over education shifted from the town meeting to selectmen who were elected by the community to administer local town affairs. Among other duties the selectmen certified and hired teachers and inspected schools. But as the administrative responsibilities of the selectmen increased, they began to delegate their school powers to special subcommittees of selectmen. Control over education by the selectmen, ministers, and school committees had become common practice during the 18th century and was made legal by the Massachusetts Law of 1789 (Cremin 1951, pp. 129-131).

2. Nineteenth Century

The Law of 1789 also gave legal recognition to the decentralized district form of school organization. As the town population dispersed to the rural areas, more and more power was vested in the local school district. This practice culminated in the Massachusetts Laws of 1827 which required each town to elect a school committee responsible for the supervision of education. The educational duties formerly held by the selectmen, ministers, and special committees now passed into the hands of lay representatives of the community. Neither professional qualifications nor educational standards were prerequisities for committee membership. According to Lawrence Cremin, "this legislation early established a tradition that the public agencies of school control were to be lay, civil committees with a specialized function peculiar unto themselves" (Cremin 1951, p. 137). By 1830, local control over public schools was a well-established principle in Massachusetts, the most influential of the New England states in the area of education. Educational development in almost every other state followed suit.

As the character of the country changed in the 19th century, educational reform was imminent. Population increase, immigration, industrialization, and urban growth created a complex economic and social stratification. People came to look upon the schools as a "cure-all for society's ills" and education as a means for overcoming widespread urban poverty. To the influx of immigrants the schools were seen as a "gateway to success for their children." It soon became apparent that

the public schools could not continue to function as they had in the less complicated rural system. To correct the inequalities that developed in the increasingly urbanized school districts, and to ensure that schools provided an equal education for everyone, reformers sought to centralize the process for making school decisions. Consequently, many of the educational responsibilities held by local school districts and local school committees were shifted to the states. Decisions regarding the establishment and finance of schools and policies concerning school attendance were now made at the state level. In addition, state schools for the preparation of teachers were established (Katz 1968, pp. 1-13).

2.3 Twentieth Century

By the year 1900 community influence in education was exercised primarily through the election of community members to local and state school governing boards. Those elected were to represent parent's and laymen's views with regard to school policies. More often than not, however, the views represented were those of professionals and of the social and economic elite. The direct participation of parents in school decision making was rarely sought (Bloomberg 1971, p. 336). This trend continued during the first half of the 20th century, when the population increase, coupled with the consolidation of school districts into larger units, produced a drastic drop in the ratio of school board members to constituents. In 1900, for example, there had been one board member for every 138 citizens; today one board member represents approximately 2470 people (Guthrie, forthcoming, pp. 26-27).*

A movement to insulate schools from the widespread political corruption of the 1900s resulted in the centralization of city school boards. It was argued that, through centralization, the public would be better able to monitor the actions of the board members and to safeguard against the use of the schools for political ends. Delegating more power to fewer elected officials, however, further eroded lay participation in school decision making and, at a time when the business of governing schools was becoming more complex and more time consuming,

*All excerpts from Guthrie are cited with the permission of the National Committee for Citizens in Education.

there were fewer elected officials to assume the responsibility. Many cities therefore hired superintendents and professional school administrators to help board members oversee school operations. Although it was intended that these professionals implement policies established by the boards, it soon became clear that they sought and exercised strong control in the school decision-making process. By the 1950s professionals dominated education at the local, state, and federal levels and promoted the notion that curriculum, instruction, and administration in the public schools were esoteric matters beyond the comprehension of the ordinary citizen (Guthrie, forthcoming, pp. 29-37).

As the gap between professional educators and the public widened, antagonism toward and mistrust of the schools became prevalent. During the 1940s and 1950s, there were numerous taxpayers' revolts, contested school board elections, and bond referenda. The success of the Russians in launching Sputnik further aggravated the situation, as many Americans believed that the low quality of education in the schools was responsible for the Russian lead in space exploration. Angry and discontented, the public began to seek a larger role in governing the schools. Demands for citizen input were first heard in cities where minority parents were disillusioned by the failure of inner-city schools to educate their children. The demands of black parents triggered the decentralization of many large urban school systems and led to the participation of neighborhood groups and citizens in school decision making (Bloomberg and Kincaid 1968, pp. 5-7).

The trend toward citizen involvement in education also received an impetus from the federal government. Urban renewal in the 1950s, the Model Cities program of the late 1960s, and other federally sponsored programs supported citizen participation in education. The Community Action Program--Title II of the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964--was designed to achieve "maximum feasible resident participation." Head Start and Follow Through programs emphasized community input, with parents directly involved in the formulation and administration of school programs (Hallman 1972, pp. 421-423).

Thus the black power movement and the participative thrust of the federally funded public programs motivated lay persons once again to

become actively involved in education. Today citizens no longer perceive school officials as authoritarian figures and are no longer afraid to challenge school authority. The 1970s has already proved to be a decade in which communities are taking an active role in improving the education of their children.

The ways in which citizens are becoming involved with education are many and varied. In volunteer and paraprofessional capacities, parents tutor children in reading, assist in the library, and operate audiovisual equipment. Business and industry offer job training in projects such as Philadelphia's Parkway Program, in which students use the city's museums, cultural centers, publishing houses, and other businesses as "classrooms." In addition, lay persons seeking alternatives to public education have developed community schools in many cities across the country. For example, in Flint, Michigan, each of the 54 district schools is a community school that offers varied programs of education, recreation, and cultural enrichment to both young and old (Fantini 1972, pp. 677-678). There are many examples of the direct involvement of the community in establishing school policy. In New York State, local residents are helping to "redesign" schools in several school districts. The Education Task Force in Detroit, Michigan, is comprised of 73 community persons who are active in making recommendations to the Board of Education. Different types of citizen input are emerging. In some cases citizen groups are consulted by school officials before they make a decision. In other communities, citizen groups serve in a regular advisory capacity or their representatives sit on special governing boards that help determine educational policies and decisions (Fantini 1972, pp. 679-680).

2.4 Summary

The school has as great an influence on the lives of citizens as any other institution in American society. The right of citizens to participate in decisions that will affect their lives and the lives of their children is basic to a democratic system of government. The early colonists exercised this right by participating in the New England town meeting. They actively engaged in lively debate over educational matters and directly participated in making school decisions. As the nation grew,

however, the community involvement in education gradually diminished. Control over education shifted from the town meeting to elected officials and finally to professional educators who were further removed from the community. Increasingly, parents became disillusioned with the quality of education and, overburdened with its cost, began to assert themselves and to demand a greater voice in the education of their children. The 1960s and 1970s have thus been years of education reform in which citizens are again exercising their role in public education.

There is every reason to expect that the current trend of citizen participation in education will continue. Educational issues are becoming increasingly important as parents demand quality education to meet the diverse needs of a pluralistic society. It is reasonable, then, that citizens will continue to seek their "rightful role as trustee" of one of America's most important institutions--the public school (Fantini 1974, pp. ix-xii).

2.5 Implications for the ERIC System

In every community in the country there are citizen groups engaged in educational activities. Attempting to put the public back into "public education," community members have formed citizen advisory boards, community groups, and other "watchdog" operations for the educational decision-making process. Parents to Protect Neighborhood Schools, Informed Citizens to Promote Quality Education, and Citizens Concerned About Education are organizations common in many American communities today.

Other citizen groups, such as boards of education, school committees, parent-teacher organizations, legislatures, and city councils, have long been part of the American education scene. These bodies frequently make recommendations and legislative decisions about the educational process. For example, in states where there is a state-wide textbook adoption policy, legislative groups often make the final decision about whether textbooks or particular subject areas are included on approved lists.

In order to make sound education-related decisions, both community and legislative groups need information. The Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) system contains easily accessible data on many educational topics of interest to those involved in devising school policy.

It is therefore essential that those institutions housing ERIC collections actively help communities use and benefit from the ERIC system.

One role that ERIC collection holders can assume is that of a "resource linker," advising lay persons in their communities of the resources available to them. (See Havelock 1973, pp. 17-19, for elaboration of the concept "resource linker.") These include ERIC documents, ERIC information analysis products, human resources, and sources of information outside the ERIC system. By linking citizens who have expressed a need for educational information with pertinent ERIC and non-ERIC resources, ERIC collection holders can serve a much needed function.

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3.0 Guidelines for a Community Outreach Program

Are there parent and citizen groups in your service area who need educational information? Is your library or information center interested in reaching out to these lay persons and providing them with access to ERIC and non-ERIC resources? If so, the following guidelines may be of use to you.

We will begin by briefly outlining a program that can be easily integrated into your information service activities. A more detailed description of each program component is then discussed. The program is as follows:

- --Develop a rationale for providing information services to citizens concerned with education (section 3.1).
- --Allocate a portion of the annual budget to a user services program for citizen groups (section 3.2).
  - --Determine source of funding (community groups, foundations, etc.).
  - --Make grant applications, if necessary.
- --Provide personnel to work directly with citizens (section 3.3).
- --Build and maintain a resource collection for lay persons concerned with education (section 3.4).
- --Reach out to the community (section 3.5).
  - --Identify citizen groups.
  - --Inform citizen groups of the many ERIC and non-ERIC resources available through the library or information center.
  - --Provide an information request service to lay persons.
- --Establish contact with the nearest ERIC clearinghouse and find out the kinds of supportive services that it can provide your library staff (section 3.6).

3.1 Develop a Rationale

The first step in providing a user service program for your community is to develop a rationale for working with parent and citizen groups. The rationale should integrate the service function of an ERIC collection holder with the provision of information services to the client group. For example, a rationale for the user service relationship between

a collection holder and the community might read something like this:

> "During the past ten years community participation in educational activities has been increasing in Wayne County. In order to make sound educational decisions, our citizens need information. The Honesdale Public Library staff has access to many resources that could be useful to the community. As an ERIC collection holder, we receive over 1000 ERIC documents each month. Many of these ERIC materials contain information on educational topics of interest to lay persons. In addition, our staff has knowledge of other sources of information available to citizens. By expanding the (or establishing a) library user services program for parent and citizens groups involved in educational decision making, we can provide lay persons in Wayne County with much needed information."

3.2 Allocate Funds

To operate a user service program for citizens requires a specific allocation of funds. A portion of your annual budget should be set aside for implementation of such a program. If you do not have funds available in your budget for user services activities, you may want to look for some financial assistance. *Grants: How to Find Out About Them and What to Do Next* by Virginia White (1975, Plenum Press, 227 West 17th Street, New York, NY 10011 - $19.50) is an invaluable guide for finding funding sources and getting a project funded. *Grants* discusses government, foundation, and business and industry sources and presents practical guidelines for writing a proposal.

Here are a few other suggestions of where and how to obtain funding:

3.21 Sources of Funding.

3.211 Community Groups. Many community groups, such as the League of Women Voters, are concerned with citizen involvement in education and may be a source of small grants. Rotary Clubs, Kiwanis Clubs, Chambers of Commerce, and other local civic groups often support educational projects. (See pages 19 and 20 for ways to identify community groups interested in education.)

3.212 Foundations. A number of private and public foundations

will also provide funds for educational activities. For example, the Alden Trust, a private foundation in Worcester, Massachusetts, has given a $2000 grant to Worcester citizens to help them establish a Citizen Resource Center. To identify foundations interested in your kind of project, check the *Foundation Directory* and the *Annual Register of Grant Support*. You will be surprised at the number of organizations that will support educational services for citizens. (*The Foundation Directory*, 5th ed., with four supplements, is available from the Columbia University Press, Irvington-On-Hudson, New York, NY 10533 for $30.00. *The Annual Register of Grant Support*, 6th ed., is available from Marquis Who's Who, Inc., 200 East Ohio Street, Chicago, IL 60611 for $39.50.)

3.213 Federal Money. The federal government is another source of potential funds for implementing services for citizen groups. All announcements of federal grants appear in the *Federal Register*, a government document published daily Monday through Friday. *Education Daily: The American Educator's Independent Daily* also announces Requests for Proposals (RFPs). *Education Daily* usually describes types of projects for which there are funds, proposal deadlines, and where to write for RFPs. An RFP contains detailed instructions on what information to include in a proposal for a specific program. (The *Federal Register* is available from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 for $45.00 per year. *Education Daily* is available from the Education News Services Division, Capitol Publications, Inc., Suite G-12, 2430 Pennsylvania Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20037 for $215.00 per year.)

3.22 Grant Applications. In an article in *Learning Magazine* ("Money. . . You Can Get It," May 1973, pp. 12-13), Lee Sproul stresses

that community groups and foundations appreciate simplicity in grant applications. He recommends the following procedure to those applying for funds. Write a brief one- or two-page proposal. Begin by explaining the need for the project, how it relates to your other activities, and how the project will benefit citizens in your service area. Then indicate specific program objectives and the activities for achieving these objectives. Conclude by stating how much money you need and how you plan to spend it. Once you have submitted a proposal, give the foundation president or community leader a week or two to read the request before making a personal appointment. If the group can not provide financial assistance, ask for suggestions of other groups that might be interested in funding such a project. You might also ask for advice on how to improve your proposal. (See Figure 1, pages 14 through 17, for sample grant proposal.)

Figure 1: Sample Proposal
(cont'd on next three pages)
[All names and places used in this proposal are fictitious.]

PROPOSAL FOR THE EXPANSION OF THE HONESDALE PUBLIC LIBRARY'S USER SERVICE PROGRAM FOR CITIZENS CONCERNED WITH EDUCATION

Submitted:

TO: Rodefeld Trust
1021 Ash Street
Honesdale, Missouri 80302

ON: July 21, 1975

BY: Honesdale Public Library
616 Dundaff Street
Honesdale, Missouri 80302

Signature with Titles:

Janet Meadows, Director, Honesdale Public Library
Office: 606-487-7564 Home: 606-486-9685

Sample Proposal--cont'd.

A PROPOSAL
for the Expansion of the Honesdale Public Library's
User Service Program for
Citizens Concerned with Education

Introduction

This is a request for funds to expand public library services to citizens involved with educational decision making in Honesdale, Missouri. The goal is to provide more lay persons with access to educational information by making it possible for them to check out ERIC microfiche from the Honesdale Public Library.

Need

Many parents and citizens of Honesdale, a town of 20,000, sit on school committees, belong to citizen advisory groups, and are actively involved in educational decision making. In order to make sound educational recommendations and decisions, our citizens must have access to information. During 1974 the Honesdale Public Library received over 2000 requests from citizens looking for materials on accountability, alternative school programs, roles of the ombudsman, criteria for the textbook selection, and other educational topics. Most of the information on these topics is found in journal articles and in documents made available on microfiche through the government-sponsored Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) collection, to which the Honesdale Public Library subscribes. While journal articles can easily be copied, information contained on microfiche is not quite as accessible. The library has only one copy of each ERIC microfiche and no portable microfiche readers. Therefore, only those citizens who are able to spend time in the library have access to the information on microfiche. In an effort to provide more citizens with the information they need, we propose to expand our user services program and make it possible for lay persons to check out ERIC microfiche from the library.

Objectives

The objectives of the expanded user service program will be to:

1. Make extra copies of ERIC microfiche in high demand by citizens.
2. Make portable microfiche viewers available to citizens on a check-out basis.

Program

To achieve these objectives we propose to:

1. Purchase one Bruning fiche-to-fiche duplicator.
2. Purchase ten portable Bell & Howell Briefcase microfiche readers.
3. Assign a quarter-time clerk to operate the duplicator and keep records.

Budget

To implement this program, we request funding in the amount of $3,019.70 for the following items:

	Requested from Grantor	Institutional Contribution
I. Personnel		
A. Salaries and Wages		
1. Nonprofessional Staff		
a. To be appointed, .25 full-time clerk @ $5400.00 ($5400.00 x .25)	$ 675.00	$ 675.00
Total Nonprofessional staff	-0-	$ 675.00
II. Equipment		
A. Purchase of Equipment		
1. 1 Bruning microfiche duplicator OP-10 @ $1700.00	$1000.00	$ 700.00
2. 10 Bell & Howell Briefcase Microfiche Readers @ $99.00 each ($99.00 x 10)	$ 790.00	$ 290.00

3. 10 Bell & Howell briefcases @ $39.95 each ($39.95 x 10)	$ 300.50	$ 99.00
Total Purchase of Equipment	$2090.50	$1089.00
III. Expendable Supplies		
A. Ammonia for Bruning OP-10	$ 32.00	
B. Film for Bruning OP-10	$ 120.00	
C. 2000 Microfiche blanks @ $ .01 each (2000 x $ .01)	$ 20.00	
D. 30 Briefcase reader lamps @ 2.05-- 20% discount for 16 or more ($2.05 x 30 x .20)	$ 57.20	
E. 2000 Microfiche envelopes	$ 25.00	
Total Expendable Supplies	$ 254.20	
Amount Requested--Grand Total	$3019.70	
Amount Contributed--Grand Total		$1764.00

3.3 Provide Personnel

Providing a competent and imaginative staff to work on an outreach program is a major concern. The program coordinator should be someone who has had experience working with lay persons. He or she should be familiar with ERIC and non-ERIC resources of potential interest and value to the client. Staff members may be asked to identify citizen groups within the collection holder's geographic area, alert community groups to ERIC services, conduct workshops, perform ERIC searches, or write news releases on the user service program.

3.4 Build a Resource Collection

What is the value of citizens' participating in education? Have any positive things happened as a result? What are citizen groups in other parts of the country doing? Are there any specific strategies and ideas

available for helping lay persons to become involved? Access to materials that answer questions such as these will undoubtedly help ERIC collection holders meet the information needs of citizens.

To build a resource collection on citizen involvement in education, you may want to duplicate ERIC microfiche of special value to citizens, purchase hardcopy editions of some exemplary ERIC documents, and xerox high-interest journal articles. When possible, gather materials and compile lists of those resources that are not available. You might consider shelving the materials in a specific section of the library. Making these resources visible will help publicize the user service activities for citizens.

Section 4.0 contains an annotated list of selected ERIC documents, journal articles, and books dealing with citizen participation in education. Section 4.1 is a bibliography on the value of citizen participation in the education process. Section 4.2 cites materials that describe strategies, ideas, and programs for involving citizens in education. Section 4.3 lists other useful bibliographies.

3.5 Reach Out to the Community

There are many citizen groups who are interested in education and involved in educational decision making and, thus, are potential ERIC users. A few of the more familiar organizations are: city councils, parent-teacher organizations, school boards, local chapters of the National Organization for Women, business groups such as the Junior Chamber of Commerce, and senior citizen groups. In addition, citizens will often join together at the local level to implement change through advisory committees, governing boards, commissions, and task forces. These people may have information needs to which ERIC collection holders could respond, but often they are unaware of the kinds of services you can provide. The following suggestions can help you identify local client groups and serve their informational needs.

3.51 Identifying Citizen Groups.

3.511 Local School District. The local school district may help you identify citizen groups. Contact the main office and ask for the names of groups and individuals concerned with education.

3.512 Ombudsman. Check to see if the school system has an ombudsman. Richard Saxe, in *School-Community Interaction* (1975, p. 237) describes the ombudsman as a person independent from (even though employed by) the school system who "helps citizens with complaints about suggestions for, or questions concerning the school system." An ombudsman is often required to write a quarterly report, which is generally available to the public. If available, this report could provide an excellent overview of the educational needs of lay persons in the area.

3.513 Parent Teacher Organization (PTO). PTO members may be aware of other citizen groups active in the area. Ask the local PTO president to identify other citizen organizations that may be interested in the school system.

3.514 State Department of Education. Another good source of information is your State's Department of Education, the staff of which is often aware of community groups involved with the public schools. Contact the State Department and ask for the names, addresses, and telephone numbers of citizen group leaders.

3.515 Newspapers. Identify newspapers that give the widest coverage to educational events in your community or service area. Talk with the education editor or reporter responsible for covering the schools and ask this person to identify active citizen groups. If you have the time, it would also be helpful to browse through a number of newspapers at the library, scanning

the educational articles of the last month or so. Look for articles and editorials that deal with the educational concerns and needs of lay persons. Jot down names of concerned citizens and topics of interest to them.

3.516 The National Committee for Citizens in Education (NCCE). NCCE is a nonprofit organization dedicated to increasing citizen involvement in education. The organization has a nationwide toll-free number (800-NET-WORK) that citizens may call and a growing Parent's Network. The National Committee maintains an up-to-date list of the names of concerned citizens by state and region. Write to: The National Committee for Citizens in Education, Suite 410, Wilde Lake Village Green, Columbia, MD 21044, or call (301) 997-9300.

3.52 Informing Citizens about ERIC. Having identified citizen groups concerned with education in your community, the next step is to make them aware of ERIC services. These can be brought to the attention of the general public in a variety of ways: announcements in the local media, library open house activities, exhibitions at town fairs, and presentations to community organizations. Individuals and groups that would benefit most from ERIC could be contacted personally and invited to visit the library for an explanation of the ERIC system. Here are a few tips for alerting the community to your user services program:

3.521 Press Releases. Press releases are an excellent way to publicize library services. Richard Moore and Barry E. Lefkowitz, in an article written for *The $$ Game* (1975, p. 46), suggest the following guidelines for writing a press release: Be clear and concise. Include all the essential information in the news story's lead paragraph. Try to summarize "who, what, where, when, why." In typing a release use double spacing and wide margins. Indicate the release date in the top right corner of the page. In the top left corner list the

name, address, and telephone number of the contact person who can provide further information. Write "-more-" at the bottom of each page and end the release with the mark "-30-." (See Figure 2 for sample press release.) Maintain close contact with the press and let them know that they can count on you for information. If your news stories are interesting, the paper may decide to do a feature article on your group some time in the future.

Figure 2: Sample Press Release
[All names and places are fictitious.]

Forest City Public Library
500 Main Street
Forest City, PA 18708
Contact: Peg Garrick
Telephone: 717-785-4387

NEWS
FROM THE FOREST CITY
PUBLIC LIBRARY

July 27, 1975

FOR IMMEDIATE RELEASE

PUBLIC LIBRARY TO CONDUCT WORKSHOP FOR CITIZENS CONCERNED ABOUT EDUCATION

As part of its new user services program, the Forest City Public Library is conducting a workshop for citizens concerned about improving the quality of public education. The purpose of the workshop is to show citizens how to find materials in the ERIC information network on topics of local educational concern. The workshop will be held from 7-9 p.m. on Thursday, November 22, at the Public Library Conference Hall. It is free and open to the public. For further information call Peg Garrick 785-4387.

-30-

3.522 Local Newsletters. Schools, churches, citizen task forces, and other local organizations often publish an occasional bulletin to announce activities of interest to their members. Such newsletters are excellent means of advertising library services to concerned citizens. Contact local group leaders to see if they are interested in receiving your press releases (ABA 1975, p. 45).

3.523 In-house Publications. Many local business and industrial groups publish magazines and newspapers for their employees. An article or a news release appearing in one of these in-house publications is another good way to inform many parents about the services of the ERIC system.

3.524 Public Service Announcements (PSA). A public service announcement on a local television or radio station is an ideal way to inform the local citizenry of library services. Television stations need to be contacted six to eight weeks in advance before a public service message can be aired. Provide the station with the PSA script and any accompanying visuals two to three weeks prior to the date you want your message announced. Radio stations usually want the PSA script two weeks in advance. It is a good idea to call them first and let them know you are sending a PSA and when you would like it announced. When writing a PSA be concise (PSAs are usually only 30 seconds), speak directly to your target audience, and include all pertinent information. Read it aloud and time yourself to make sure it does not exceed 30 seconds. If there are photographs or art work to be shown with the message, the PSA script should indicate exactly when visuals are to be shown. Write the text so that the TV producer can see both the dialogue and the action at the same time. When typing the PSA, use double spacing. In the top left corner of the page, list the name, address, and telephone number

of someone who can be reached for further details. In the top right corner, indicate when you want the message announced. (See Figure 3 for a sample PSA.)

Figure 3: Sample PSA
[All names and places are fictitious.]

Susquehanna Junior College Library
50 Delaware Street
Susquehanna, Kansas 62114
Contact: John Arrigan
Telephone: 302-768-8392

NEWS
FROM THE SUSQUEHANNA JUNIOR COLLEGE LIBRARY

PUBLIC SERVICE ANNOUNCEMENT

To be announced Monday through Thursday, July 21-24th, 1975.

The Susquehanna Junior College Library is sponsoring an Open House this Friday evening for citizens concerned with education. The film, "How to Form a Citizen Advisory Committee," will be shown at 7 p.m. Afterwards citizens are invited to browse through a special collection of materials on citizen participation in education. That's this Friday, July 25th, at 7 p.m., at the Susquehanna Junior College Library, the corner of Delaware and 5th Street.

END

3.525 Talk Shows. Another means for reaching community groups is through television and radio talk shows. Stations, especially local education networks, are always looking for someone interesting to interview. When you are involved with a special project, call the station and try to arrange for your group director and some local citizens to appear on a show.

3.526 Open Houses. Once or twice a year, have an open house to inform local citizens about the information services provided by ERIC. Schedule the open house for a time when parents can attend. Advertise the

activity in the local media, send flyers to local citizen and parent groups, and post announcements in supermarkets and on community bulletin boards. An open house can be used to display the new library section devoted to materials on citizen participation in education; to point out journal articles, books, and ERIC documents on a topic of current concern to the community citizens; and to show a relevant film. It is often helpful to provide a one-page mimeographed sheet explaining your information services. Have enough staff on hand so that you can give participants some individual assistance, and provide a guest book for visitors to sign--a good way to get names for your mailing list.

3.527 Local Fairs. Community-sponsored fairs are usually heavily attended. When there is an event of this sort in your service area, arrange to set up a booth. Display materials on educational topics of current concern to citizens. Chat with people and find out the educational issues in which they are interested. Have a sign-up sheet for your mailing list.

3.528 Service and Community Groups. Most service clubs and local groups meet regularly and their members are interested in knowing about information services for future reference. Arrange for your director to make a general presentation at these meetings.

3.529 Community Bulletin Boards. Brief, easy to read bulletins describing available library information services should be strategically placed in much-frequented public areas. Post notices of ERIC and its services on community bulletin boards, at the public library, at the local "Y's," in post offices, and on supermarket boards.

3.52(10) Library Visits. Personally contacting lay persons, identifying the key educational issues of interest to them, and providing them with useful information is a good method for reaching the community. Telephone a

leader or an influential member of a citizen organization. Introduce yourself and ERIC and chat a bit about the interests and the educational needs of the citizen group. Try to arrange for a time when he or she can visit the library for an introduction to ERIC. When the individual visits the library, emphasize the relevance of ERIC documents to his or her needs. For example, if you know beforehand that the group is interested in the voucher system of education, pull three or four of the best microfiche on this topic and xerox a couple of good articles. Sit down with the person and demonstrate an ERIC search. Section 6.0 will help you assist persons in using the ERIC system to solve a particular problem. It discusses the process of moving from the identification of a problem to skilled action and contains specific steps to develop an action plan to solve a problem. If a visitor finds pertinent materials and a helpful library staff, he or she is bound to "talk up" this new source of information. Word-of-mouth advertising is often the best kind.

3.52(11) Workshops. Conducting an ERIC workshop for citizen groups is an excellent way to reach many new potential clients in a short amount of time. Section 5.0 contains guidelines to help you plan a workshop for community groups.

3.53 Answering Information Requests. The first step in handling information requests is to make sure you understand a client's needs. Take the time to listen and to probe. Some questions that might be appropriate to ask include:

--On what issue or topic are you looking for information?

--What is the grade level? Elementary? Secondary? Adult?

--How is the information going to be used? Who is going to use it?

--What kind of information do you want? Research reports? Guidelines?

If the information request cannot be answered through ERIC and other library resources, the client should be referred to an organization that can best provide assistance.

If the library can assist with the client's request, the staff should provide the resources, taking care not to swamp the client with too much information. We also recommend that you put a disclaimer statement on all materials that go out of the library. This statement should advise the client that you are not endorsing or recommending any of the ideas contained in the resources, but that you are acting only in a linkage capacity. Such a disclaimer is necessary to maintain neutrality as an information center.

One excellent way to provide lay persons with needed information is through an information packet. For example, if the local Committee for Concerned Citizens wanted information on the advantages and disadvantages of implementing a year-round school program, you might answer its request with a packet of material containing ERIC microfiche, journal articles, and an annotated bibliography of additional pertinent documents. (See section 7.0 for sample information packet.) You might allow the client to check out this packet and a portable microfiche reader. Many people prefer to take materials home rather than use them in the library.

Always follow up and check back with the client to see if the resources were helpful. You may find that he or she needs further assistance or is interested in learning how to do an ERIC search to find additional materials. Keep track of all information requests from and services rendered to citizen groups. Duplicate searches and information packets and make these a part of the library's permanent resource collection so that if other citizens are in need of the same information, data are readily available.

3.6 Establish Contact with the Nearest ERIC Clearinghouse

Clearinghouse staff have expertise in providing user services and in linking clients to information. Contact the ERIC clearinghouse nearest you and let them know what services you are interested in providing citizens in your area. The clearinghouse staff may be able to help you plan a workshop for citizen groups; provide you with the names of citizen groups concerned with education in your service area; put you in contact with

sources of financial assistance and help you brainstorm ideas for proposal writing; develop an information brochure, bibliography, or paper; or introduce you to some new sources of information on citizen participation in education.

References

American Bar Association Special Committee on Youth Education for Citizenship. *The $$$ Game: A Guidebook on the Funding of Law-Related Educational Programs*. Chicago, IL: American Bar Association, 1975.

Saxe, Richard. *School-Community Interaction*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1975.

4.0 Citizen Participation in Education: An Annotated List

This brief bibliography lists a number of ERIC documents and journal articles on citizen participation in education. Materials were selected from references listed in *Resources in Education*, *Current Index to Journals in Education*, and *Reader's Guide to Periodical Literature*. The items cited are only a small percentage of the materials that might have been included.

The bibliography is divided into three sections. Section 4.1, "Value of Citizen Participation in Education," includes materials that describe positive results of community involvement in education. Section 4.2 is entitled "Strategies, Ideas, and Programs for Citizen Involvement in Education" and includes a small sampling of guidelines, models, and "how-to-do-it" materials. Section 4.3 describes two useful bibliographies.

4.1 Value of Citizen Participation in Education

Adams, Velma. "Taxpayers Out to Change the Schools." *School Management*, 18:6 (June-July 1974) pp. 22-26.

Brief descriptions of citizen action groups are provided. Their problems, achievements, organizations, and value to the community are examined.

Chopra, Raj K. "Money--Who Needs It?" *Community Education Journal*, 4:5 (Sep.-Oct. 1974) pp. 51-52.

Describes the combined efforts of a community and school system to develop and maintain a community education program without special funding.

Coon, George, Robert Christina, Ronald L. Cramer, and Doris Sponseller. *The Role of a Community Committee in an Early Childhood Project*. Rochester, MI: Oakland University School of Education, 1974. 17 pp. ED 098 722.

Describes the Oakland University Early Childhood Project, which developed a plan for involving the community in a university program. The interaction between the university and community members is credited with improving the university's ability to service the community.

Cousins, Norman. "The Layman as Ally in Education." *School Counselor*,

21:4 (Mar. 1974) pp. 260-265.

Focuses on the participation of laymen as an asset to the educational process. The article maintains that tax and budget problems, in particular, are more constructively resolved if they are discussed after, not before, a consideration of basic educational purposes.

Davies, Don. "The Emerging Third Force in Education." *Inequality in Education*, 15 (Nov. 1973) pp. 5-12.

Focuses on parents and citizens as the main hope for reform in public schools. The article contends that citizen participation in educational decision making taps new ideas and energy and provides leverage to bring about reform in improving the quality of services.

Herman, Barry E. "Community Involvement--A Positive Approach in Education." *Intregrated Education*, 9:2 (Mar.-Apr. 1971) pp. 28-30.

The principal of Winchester Community School, New Haven, Connecticut, discusses the positive results of having parents interview teaching applicants.

May, Lucius J. "Community Involvement: The Detroit Experience." *Community Education Journal*, 4:3 (May-June 1974) pp. 52-53.

Relates some of the significant developments arising from a large school district's program aimed at school-community involvement.

O'Neil, William F. "Boston: Community Schools from the Grass Roots." *Community Education Journal*, 4:5 (Sep.-Oct. 1974) pp. 29-30.

Discusses the grass roots citizen pressure that led to the formation of community schools to replace elementary schools in Boston. The community schools are operated by the Boston School Committee during the regular school day and by the Department of Public Facilities in the extended day and evening.

"Rebuilding a School: Four Views on Community Participation." *Council of Educational Facility Planners Journal*, 11:3 (June 1973) pp. 8-11.

Discusses community involvement in planning the construction of a school.

4.2 Strategies, Ideas, and Programs for Citizen Involvement in Education

Beane, James A. "Organizing the School and Community for Cooperative Planning." *Community Education Journal*, 3:5 (Sep. 1973) pp. 26-28.

Discusses the establishment of a district-wide steering committee or educational council to promote meaningful community involvement in educational planning. Case studies of four districts illustrate alternative strategies for developing school-community cooperation.

Carrillo, Tony S., and Israel C. Heaton. "Strategies for Establishing a Community Education Program." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 54:3 (Nov. 1972) pp. 165-167.

Fourteen steps in building a community education program are explained. The emphasis is on community education as a way of life and not just as another experimental program.

Citizen Action in Education, 1:1 (Winter 1974) 12 pp. ED 091 293. Also available from the Institute for Responsive Education, Yale University, 70 Sachem St., New Haven, CT 06520 (free).

The first issue of this newsletter discusses methods to identify people, places, projects, and new ideas in participatory education. The lead article focuses on the purposes and role of the institute as an investigator in the field of citizen participation in educational decision making. News items present brief notes on other groups in the United States who are also contributing to the community involvement goal. One major article describes a citizen participation model, "Public Schools of Choice," developed by Mario Fantini, and another discusses the rights of unions and teachers. A book review concludes the issue, reviewing a parent's experience in fighting for improved school services in New York City.

Education for the People: Guidelines for Total Community Participation in Forming and Strengthening the Future of Public Elementary and Secondary Education in California. 2 vols. Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1972. 356 pp. ED 066 822. Available only from the Joint Committee on Educational Goals and Evaluation, Assembly Post Office Box 83, State Capitol, Sacramento, CA 95814 ($4.05).

Describes the California State program for increased citizen participation in decision making in education. Volume 1 discusses the processes for determining school goals, objectives, and priorities. Volume 2 is designed to serve as a resource book for school and community leaders. It focuses on goal determination, methods for improving interpersonal communication, needs assessment, and group involvement. The report also describes achievements in two model communities.

Fagan, Dorothy F. "Community Participation in Decision Making." *Educational Horizons*, 52:1 (Fall 1973) pp. 10-13.

Describes community-school interaction programs that have produced

positive results in the Pasadena, California, Unified School District.

Flemmings, Vincent C., and Farrell L. McClane. *Planning for Effective Community School Relations: A Manual of Procedures*. New York, NY: Center for Urban Education, 1972. 49 pp. ED 087 981.

Provides practical procedures and suggestions for designing, conducting, and evaluating a workshop in community-school relations. Includes tips on stipends, staffing, and workshop activities.

Flores, Robert R. "Wanted--Community Involvement in Education." *School Management*, 15:12 (Dec. 1971) pp. 28, 29, 48.

Suggestions for obtaining minority-group involvement in education are provided.

Goble, Nicholas. "Planning Community Involvement in School Decision-Making." *Pennsylvania Education*, 3:6 (July-Aug. 1972) pp. 4-5.

Includes the National School Board Association's guidelines for effective community involvement.

Handbook for Community Organization. Durham, NC: Foundation for Community Development, 1969. 62 pp. ED 053 357. Also available from the Community Organization Project, Southern Regional Council, Inc., 5 Forsyth Street, N.W., Atlanta, GA 30303 (no price quoted).

Provides practical guidelines for forming a community action group, with suggestions about organizations, funding, and political effectiveness.

Hoffman, David B., Janet S. Jordan, and Florence McCormick. *Parent Participation in Preschool Daycare*. Atlanta, GA: Southeastern Education Laboratory, 1971. 227 pp. ED 054 863.

An overview of principles and methods for involving parents in child care, day care, and child development programs. It clarifies and broadens the concept of parent participation and provides examples and practical suggestions for effectively involving parents in all aspects of day care.

Hoke, Fred, Donald D. Basile, and Robert C. Whiting. "How to Improve Community Attitudes." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 53:1 (Sep. 1971) pp. 30-32.

Provides a brief report on a federally financed project in Ohio County, West Virginia, that identified the causes of public neglect of the schools and tested possible remedies. In the course of the project, concerned citizens tried to educate the majority of uncommitted citizens.

Johnson, C. Montgomery, and Virginia Clocksin. *School Bond Issues: Pass-Fail. Community Plan of Action in Support of Schools.* Chicago, IL: Sports Foundation Inc., 1972. 40 pp. ED 078 561. Also available from Compass, Suite 1400, 221 LaSalle St., Chicago, IL 60601 ($2.00).

Provides ideas, plans, and activities for winning a school bond election. Of special interest are the campaign roles of civic clubs, citizen committees, Parent Teacher Associations, and school personnel.

Koslofsky, Norman. "The Critical Role of the Ombudsman." *Clearinghouse,* 48:7 (Mar. 1974) pp. 399-401.

Focuses on the use of an ombudsman as one way to increase communication between the school and community. Practical guidelines for developing such a position are outlined.

Lumpe, Gus. "Need Local Support? Put Your Constituents in Your Board Seat--For a Night." *American School Board Journal,* 160:6 (June 1973) pp. 40-41.

Discusses the experience of a community in Clayton, Missouri, where, in order to bridge the communications gap between school board and the citizenry, parents and taxpayers switched roles with school board members.

McClane, Farrell L., Vincent C. Flemmings, Linda Pimentel, and Wilease Fields. *Community-School Relations Workshop: A Workshop Leader's Guide.* New York, NY: Center for Urban Education, 1972. 74 pp. ED 089 181.

Provides 15 sample units designed to assist a workshop leader in conducting a session in community-school relations. The units include problem awareness activities, role-playing exercises, problem-solving activities, and planning strategies for the future.

MacMillan, Richard K. "School-Community Advisory Councils in Flint." *Community Education Journal,* 4:3 (May-June 1974) pp. 20-22.

Describes the role of community advisory councils in one school district.

Mann, Dale. "Political Representation and Urban School Advisory Councils." *Teachers College Record,* 75:3 (Feb. 1974) pp. 279-307.

Describes a program designed to increase community involvement in the design and implementation of local educational programs and policies.

Morgan, Frank W., Jr. "Vermont's Community-Involved 'Open' School." *American Education,* 9:5 (June 1973) pp. 10-15.

Discusses a village school teacher's efforts to combine innovative ideas with traditional values in order to include community members in the town's elementary school program.

Participation of the Poor in the Community Decision-Making Process. Washington, DC: Office of Economic Opportunity, Community Action Program, 1969. 43 pp. ED 037 645.

Key factors that promote, through group interactions, participation of the poor in community decision-making processes, programs, and activities are identified. These include techniques and practical suggestions that Community Action Program grantees have used successfully to enhance participation.

Smith, Mortimer. "Can Control of the Public Schools Be Returned to the Citizens?" *Education Digest*, 40:4 (Dec. 1974) pp. 38-39.

Recommends the "Florida Plan" to increase public participation in education. This plan, adopted by the state of Florida in 1973, divides the school system into individual school sites and provides for parent advisory councils to help the school board select the principal and allocate resources.

Toward More Effective Involvement of the Community in the School. Dayton, OH: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 1972. 28 pp. ED 072 527. Also available from Institute for Development of Educational Activities, Suite 300, 5335 Far Hills Ave., Dayton, OH 45429 ($2.00).

Recommendations for increasing the effectiveness of traditional parent organizations, local community groups, and school administrators in community-school interaction are provided.

van Willigen, John, and Allyn G. Spence. "Parental Involvement in Schools." *Northian*, 9:3 (Spring 1973) pp. 43.

Two basic questions are examined: why is parental involvement in schools valuable and, if it is, how may it be achieved?

Wilcox, Preston. "Parental Decision-Making: An Educational Necessity." *Theory Into Practice*, 11:3 (June 1972) pp. 178-182.

Describes the AFRAM Parent Implementation Educational Follow Through Model in New York City in which parents acted as the key decision makers/participants in converting the school community into a new family group.

4.3 Bibliographies

Davies, Don. *Citizen-Participation in Education: Annotated Bibliography.*

New Haven, CT: Institute for Responsive Education, 1974. 168 pp. ED 088 818. Also available from Institute for Responsive Education, 70 Sachem St., New Haven, CT 06520 ($3.00).

Focuses on citizen participation in education in the areas of decision making, policy development, and school governance in the public school system. Four hundred references are annotated, including books, reports, and journal articles. The references are organized into ten sections: Theoretical Background, Community Action, School Problems, School Politics, Community Control and Citizen Advisory Committees, Community Schools, Administration and Accountability, Guides for Citizens, Bibliographies and Books, and Dissertations (a listing without annotations).

ERIC Abstracts: A Collection of ERIC Document Resumes on Citizen Involvement in the Control of Schools. Washington, DC: American Association of School Administrators, and Eugene, OR: University of Oregon, ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Administration, 1970. 28 pp. ED 044 832. Also available from the American Association of School Administrators, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, DC 20036 ($2.00 each, quantity discounts).

Includes ERIC abstracts listed in RIE through November 1970. The key terms used in compiling this collection are "citizen participation," "decentralization," "school community relationship," and "school district autonomy."

5.0 Guidelines for a Community Workshop

It is not our intention to provide a step-by-step program for a community workshop. Rather, the following suggestions offer some general guidelines that may be useful in planning a workshop of this nature.

5.1 Plan for Participants' Needs

It is very easy for workshop leaders who are "full" of their topic to overload participants with their interests. Before you do any specific planning, find out the needs of the participants and tailor the workshop to these needs. Involve the group in planning and conducting the workshop as much as possible.

5.2 Consider New Models

If you have used a particular training format successfully for years, do not assume that this format will be applicable for others, especially community people. Think about new models and designs.

5.3 Build on Participants' Expertise

Often, it is assumed that workshop participants know very little. Recognize that community people have a lot of expertise in various areas. Any workshop should be designed to build upon the knowledge of the participants.

5.4 Use Experiential Activities and Informality

All community people have probably been in school at one time or another and, therefore, may have developed some negative images of the classroom, which they might associate with a workshop of this kind. Try to design a session so that it is informal and so that participants can engage in experiential activities.

5.5 Keep It Short

Recognize that community people have a limited amount of time for training activities. You will be dealing with very busy people. Make workshop sessions short, focus on the topic of interest, and do not

demand too much of the participants' time.

5.6 Involve Several Similar Organizations

Many community organizations have somewhat similar purposes. If possible, try to involve a number of organizations in the same workshop activities.

5.7 Follow Up

A workshop should not be a one-time experience. In preparing for a session, consider the possible avenues for follow-up.

(For additional suggestions see Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt, *The Volunteer Community*, Chapter VI, Washington, DC: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1971.)

6.0 An Action Plan for Educational Problem Solving

Many of the ideas in this section are a result of the work of the late Robert S. Fox, former director of ERIC/ChESS. He developed, along with James E. Davis, an earlier version of this problem-solving approach, which has never been published. The plan presented here is based on the unpublished work.

6.1 Linking Intentions to Skilled Action

All of us in education are problem solvers, whether we are operating as individuals or as members of a group. Usually we are fairly clear about our intentions and goals. Translating these intentions into skilled or skillful action is rarely given a second thought. The emphasis in our educational system has been placed on helping people learn verbal behavior. Thus, one can learn the skills of communicating without relating these skills to behavior. In fact, there is little in the school curriculum at any level that focuses on behavioral skill training.

One vivid example comes from a situation in which considerable animosity was being generated between the professional and secretarial staff of an organization. In dealing with the problem, staff members were willing to examine their own positions and actions. Through role-playing activities it was found that most of the staff had sophisticated verbal notions about the appropriate things to do, and the things they really wanted to do. But when it came to actualizing their ideas, behaviorally, they exhibited very little skill. There was a tremendous discrepancy between the sophistication they had in expressing verbal intentions and their ability to link these intentions to effective behavior.

All of us have this deficiency in varying degrees. We may be able to conduct a sophisticated ERIC search. We can, perhaps, build excellent plans based on information retrieved from ERIC documents and other information. But when asked, "What will you say and how will you say it to (a superior) when we present our plan?", most of us are at a loss.

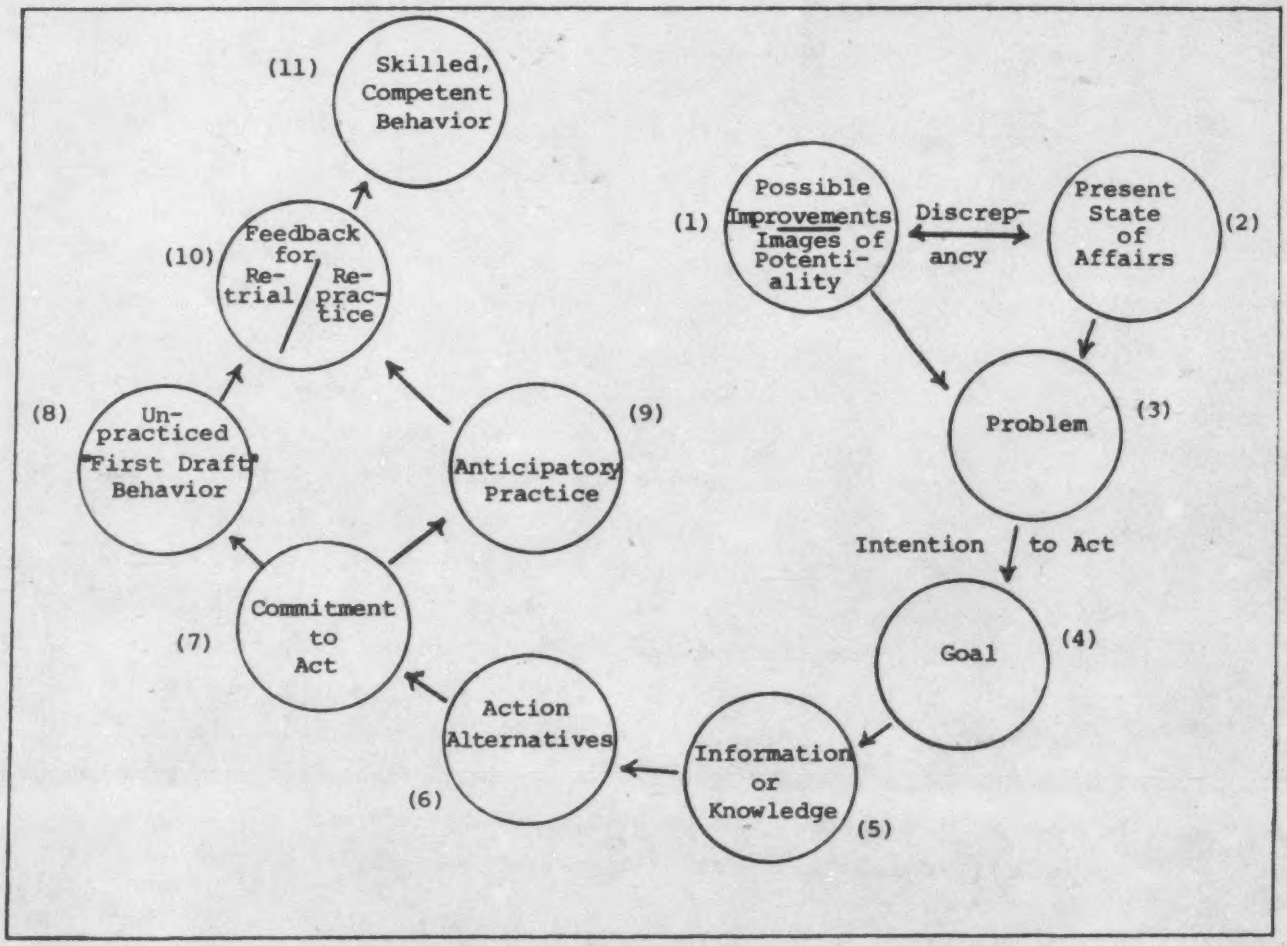
Think of all the ways in which we are taught and teach ourselves to be rewarded for closures that stop short of interactive behavior. For instance, performing well on a written test is a closure that stops short

of any kind of behavior that directly involves another person. Another example is what might be called the "righteous closure." That is, "I know my values are right or my intentions are good; therefore my behavior must be valid. Anybody who gives me feedback that my behavior is not adequate, must be wrong because I know what my intentions are and surely my behavior must reflect my intentions."

Let's take a look at how our intentions can be translated into behavior. Please study the diagram below, the components of which will be examined in some depth. Note that in the discussion that follows, the bracketed numbers correspond to the numbers on the diagram.

Figure 1.

Educational Problem Solving--Linking Intentions to Skilled Action



For many of us the process of educational problem solving begins with an assignment from a superior, such as to develop a curriculum on information utilization. In this situation there does not seem to be a clear commitment on the part of the problem solver to move toward problem solution. One way to link a problem to the processes going on within the individual is to start by identifying some of the things that the individual would like to see happen in his or her classroom, school system, library, or community organization--"images of potentiality" or "possible improvements" (1). Then compare these to the data about the present state of affairs (2). The apparent discrepancies will point up some of the problems that might be worth working on (3). Restating one of these problems as a goal to work toward (4) again taps the inner concerns of the problem solver by assuming some intentions to act (shown in the diagram as a link between problem and goal). Having a goal pushes one to seek resources that may help in moving toward this goal--information or knowledge (5). The knowledge may reside in an information-gathering system like ERIC, or it may lie with colleagues, schools, or other organizations attempting to work toward the same goal. A good search will enhance the possibility of identifying action alternatives (6). Having such choices available ties into the individual's inner processes and values, and testing one of these possibilities creates a commitment to action (7).

Most of us test an action alternative by just doing it. This is called unpracticed, "first-draft" behavior (8). Another possibility is to engage in anticipatory practice or try-out through role playing (9). Both the unpracticed, "first-draft" behavior and the anticipatory practice need to have a built-in feedback system (10) so that the problem solver can revise his behavior through retrial or repractice.

The concept of anticipatory practice was developed long ago by Genghis Khan. The idea has not been used very extensively in U.S. education, although it has been used actively by the military and by industry. If anticipatory practice is presented in the school at all, it is treated mechanically in some of the so-called simulation/game activities. There are two key ideas for linking feedback to skilled behavior. Most of our behavior is in situations where our actions are on

the line. In other words, we are being critically evaluated, so that it is pretty hard to be open, to be flexible, or to consider alternatives while we are involved in such critical interaction processes. Therefore, to get feedback about my behavior, I must be in a situation where *I am not playing for keeps*. This may be a role-playing situation or a situation in which there is interpersonal support for taking risks.

Looking at our diagram we can see some of the steps that are needed to link ideas, goals, and intentions to skilled, competent behavior (11). Many of us do not capitalize on the support these linkages would bring to our problem-solving efforts if we were actually to forge such a chain of internal thought and external behavior. Very frequently intentions fall by the wayside because they are not linked to enough alternatives to provide behavioral success. In most problem situations, the participants will agree on the commitment and the intention. Then someone comes up with a plan and the group zeros in on that one action suggestion. No matter how skilled the behavior, if the action suggestion is on the wrong track, it will fail. The group will not succeed because alternative behavior was not considered.

Let us use the example of a staff meeting. Perhaps there are several people who want more productive and enjoyable staff meetings. Someone says, "Well, that's easy, all we need to do is change the seating and have coffee available; that will do it." And somebody else says, "That's right, that is what we'll do." The mistake here is to overlook other improvements needed to make a better staff meeting. Seating and coffee might not be the most critical factors. We also should recognize that while many groups have goals and aims, they have no intention of acting on these goals. Take the example of a community-faculty leadership team in a metropolitan elementary school. The goal of the principal and his cabinet was to work out a proposal for an acre of grass to be planted in front of the school building. When a team member was asked, "Do you think that's really a very realistic goal to work on for a whole day?", he replied, "No, I don't think so." "So why are you spending so much time and energy on it?" "Well," he said, "so when we fail we won't feel guilty."

Perhaps these examples can help remind us of our own experiences.

Each of us has our own techniques of "premature closure." That is, we pat ourselves on the back at various points short of real action. All of us involved in both formal and nonformal education are challenged to link our ideas first to goals and then to skilled action.

6.2 Developing an Action Plan

The purpose of this section is to offer some specific steps for developing an action plan to solve an educational problem. As you read along, you might think of how you would develop your own problem-solving approach.

Below is a sample of an "Action Plan Worksheet."

Figure 2.

Action Plan Worksheet

Goal: _____

_____

_____

Force Selected to Work on: _____

_____

_____

Action Idea(s) Chosen: _____

_____

_____

What Will Be Done?	Who Will Do It?	Where & When?	How?	Special Resources Needed

The first step in action planning is to write down, as specifically as possible, an action goal statement. Think of the possible goals you or a group with which you are working may have. How would you state a goal? Here are some criteria for a good goal statement: (1) The goal statement must be something that you or the group think is important. (2) The goal must be manageable. That is, the goal should be something you think you can accomplish. (3) The goal should be measurable. For example, to improve education is not a very measurable goal, whereas to develop a program to use at least ten parent volunteers within the next six months is an objective that can be measured.

The second step is to do a force field analysis to identify those forces that may help or prevent you from successfully reaching your goal. Briefly stated, a force field is the dynamic set of forces that are currently in balance, keeping a situation from changing. In any situation there are supporting forces (forces that press for change) and restraining forces (forces that block change). It is possible to cause change by increasing the supporting forces. However, when we increase the pressure for change, we sometimes find that the restraining forces also increase. Therefore, it is often more effective to diminish the strength of one or more of the restraining forces, allowing the supporting forces to push in a positive direction. An illustration of a force field analysis is shown on the next page.

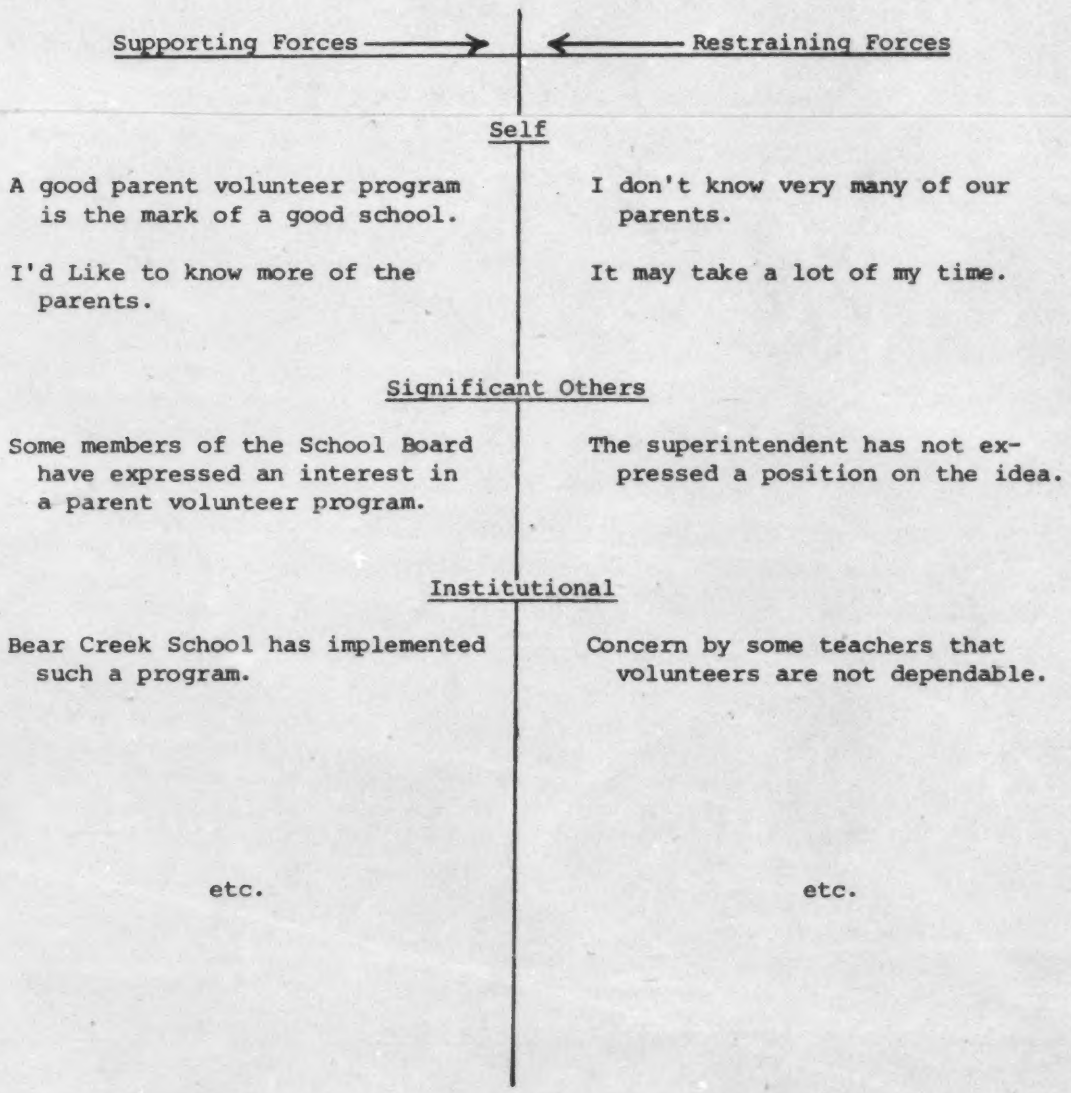
Note that the current situation with regard to the stated goal is shown by means of perpendicular line down the center of the diagram. It is assumed that the condition is one in which there is no program for parent volunteers. If all the forces have been clearly identified, the restraining forces are exactly balancing the supporting forces. Hence, no change. If change is desired, some of the forces will have to be modified to throw the field out of balance. This should result in movement of the center line to the right in the direction of the goal. Take just a few seconds to look at some of the forces identified as examples in this illustration of a force field analysis.

As you do your own analysis, be sure to list all the supporting and restraining forces of which you are aware. Do not be selective. Jot down everything that comes to mind. You might want to think of supporting

Figure 3.

Force Field Analysis

Goal: To develop, within the next six months, a program to use at least ten parent volunteers in our school so that teachers feel the parent contributions are helpful and parents appreciate the opportunity to help. (Principal's goal)


Supporting Forces
Restraining Forces
Self
A good parent volunteer program is the mark of a good school.
I'd Like to know more of the parents.
I don't know very many of our parents.
It may take a lot of my time.
Significant Others
Some members of the School Board have expressed an interest in a parent volunteer program.
The superintendent has not expressed a position on the idea.
Institutional
Bear Creek School has implemented such a program.
Concern by some teachers that volunteers are not dependable.
etc.
etc.

and restraining forces in three categories: those within yourself; those coming from "significant others," such as members of your family, members of your organization, or members of other groups; and institutional forces.

After completing the force field, the third step is to choose one force that you feel you can do something about--or one you feel has a high priority. (Remember that it may be a good strategy to deal with restraining forces first.) Once you have selected a force, it should be written down on the Action Plan Worksheet.

The fourth step in the action plan is to brainstorm all the things you may be able to do to change the strength of the force selected. If you are working with a group, you should follow the rules of brainstorming. These are: (1) List all the ideas that come to mind. (2) Do not discuss the ideas during the brainstorming session. (3) Do not judge the ideas listed. (4) Repetition of ideas should be allowed. If a group brainstorming session is not feasible, you might show the list you develop by yourself to others to see what suggestions they may have. After you have completed the brainstorming, select one or several of the ideas on which you would like to begin work.

The last is to write down the specific details of how to carry out the ideas proposed. It is appropriate now to decide who will do what, when and where the action will take place, how it will take place, and whether any special resources are needed. For example, in the development of a volunteer program, the principal may choose to work with the superintendent, who is a restraining force because of his ambivalence. One entry under "What Will Be Done?" may be, "Write a letter to the superintendent." "Who Will Do It?" "Myself." "When?" "By a week from Friday." And so on.

These procedures for developing an action plan can be useful and productive. Why not try them out and see what happens?

7.0 Sample Information Packet

INFORMATION PACKET

on

THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES

of

YEAR-ROUND SCHOOLS, K-12

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SOME ADDITIONAL RESOURCES ON THE PROS AND CONS OF YEAR-ROUND SCHOOLS, K-12

The following ERIC documents and journal articles are available at the

_____.

(Name of ERIC Collection Holder)

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ERIC Documents

Biskin, Donald S., Jane L. Ellison, and Thomas M. Sherman. *Child Development in the Year Round Elementary School*. March 1, 1973. 12 pp. ED 075 941. EDRS price: $0.76 microfiche, $1.58 paper copy, plus postage.

This paper emphasizes that one of the main concerns in year-round education is the effect upon the social, emotional, physical, and psychological development of children. Alteration of the school calendar, and the curricular innovations that tend to piggyback year-round programs, may well provide the impetus for individualizing and humanizing instructional methods and enhancing the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor development of children.

The Continuous School Year. The Cranston Quadricycle Plan for a Continuous School Year. Project Pacesetter. Cranston, RI: Cranston School Department, 1972. 136 pp. ED 077 199. EDRS price: $0.76 microfiche, $6.97 paper copy, plus postage. Also available from the Office of Grant Programs, Cranston School Department, 845 Park Avenue, Cranston, RI 02910 ($1.00).

Acting on instructions from the Cranston School Committee, a committee composed of educational professional staff, community leaders, citizens, and students was organized to consider the methods and feasibility of year-round schools. The year-round concept and its application in various plans throughout the country was the subject of investigation by the committee for two years. This report to the community, school department, and elected officials of Cranston presents the progress, findings, and conclusions of Project Pacesetter from its inception to 1972. The report presents information on curriculum; the proposed model; cost analysis; and the results of surveys of teachers, students, citizens, and business and recreation segments of the community. The information provided in this report should be of significant value to those who intend to plan a year-round school program and to the citizens of any community who must consider seriously whether this is an alternative they would like to use for their school system.

Feasibility Studies for Extending the Regular School Year. A Report. Lansing, MI: Michigan State Department of Education, October 8, 1970. 27 pp. ED 084 655. EDRS price: $0.76 microfiche, $1.95 paper copy, plus postage.

This report contains a summary and synthesis of all the information and recommendations contained in six different studies, conducted during 1969-70 in eight Michigan school districts, of the feasibility of extending the regular school year. Three school districts--Port Huron, Northville, and Utica--selected the four-quarter mandated design for their K-12 studies. Under this plan, students are divided into four groups and assigned by family units to attend three of four quarters on a staggered basis. The Freeland school district selected the mandated trimester design, which calls for the division of a lengthened school year into three 78-day trimester segments. Students attend school seven hours a day for two trimesters. The Ann Arbor school district selected a modified split-trimester design in which students attend five of six 36-day blocks in a year. The Okemos, East Lansing, and Haslett school districts selected the five-term or continuous school year design for their cooperative secondary study. Under this plan, students may attend four of five nine-week terms a year. The report describes the nature of the communities involved, how the communities were informed of each plan, community attitudes and vacation preferences, and the implications of the extended school year for school finance.

Remstad, Robert C. *An Historical Overview and Critique of the Extended School Year Movement.* Burlington, WI: Southeast Wisconsin Regional Education Center, May 1972. 34 pp. ED 077 130. EDRS price: $0.76 microfiche, $1.95 paper copy, plus postage.

This paper provides educational and lay groups in the local community with background information and a good comprehensive review of the literature. The aim is to facilitate investigations into the complex issues involved in the consideration of extended school year (ESY) scheduling. The review begins with a sketch of a simple model of the school calendar that emphasizes variables manipulated in creating alternatives

to the traditional nine-month calendar. A listing of the major issues that a local feasibility study should address and a discussion of the extent to which the existing literature illuminates those issues follows. Finally, a brief historical overview of this nation's experience with ESY is presented.

Roth, Rodney. *Extended School Year in Michigan from 1969. An Interim Report.* Lansing, MI: Michigan State Department of Education, February 1973. 34 pp. ED 084 656. EDRS price: $0.76 microfiche, $1.95 paper copy, plus postage.

Based on two interim evaluations completed at the half-way point of the first full school year (1972-73) of implementation, this report reviews briefly the current status of two separate experimental extended school year projects in Michigan. The first plan, a five-term design adopted by the tri-districts of East Lansing, Okemos, and Haslett, offers students a choice of attending any four out of five nine-week terms or all five terms if they desire to graduate early or take enrichment courses. The Northville 45-15 plan report deals mainly with reactions from staff and participating and nonparticipating parents, in addition to providing some cost-benefit analyses. Also reviewed are the evaluation studies of three other extended school year plans currently in operation--the Valley View 45-15 plan in Lockport, Illinois; the 45-15 plan of the Dale City section of the Prince William County Public Schools, Virginia; and the Quinmester plan of Dade County, Florida.

Wollaston, Twila. *Year-Round Education in Pennsylvania. A Status Report on State-Funded Programs.* Harrisburg, PA: Pennsylvania State Department of Education, Bureau of Educational Administration and Management Support Services, 1974. 64 pp. ED 098 662. EDRS price: $0.76 microfiche, $3.32 paper copy, plus postage.

The Pennsylvania Legislature funded a two-year program to enable interested local schools to conduct exploratory programs on all-year scheduling. Funds were allocated by contract on the basis of the local school's need and readiness to conduct some type of all-year program or

to study the feasibility of such a program. Findings indicate that year-round operation can produce major economic savings if there is a need to construct a new school or an addition to a school. The potential savings in the year-to-year operational budget is less clear. A remedial program that helps prevent students from failing a grade can produce an economic as well as a social savings. An accelerated program can cost more in the short run, but, because a student spends fewer years in school, may not cost more in the long run. An enrichment program will probably cost more than a regular program because of the extra services provided. Year-round programs tend to offer a greater variety of courses and to serve as a vehicle for the implementation of mini-courses and individualized instruction. A flexible year-round program can provide equal opportunity for a quality education in terms of a more humane learning environment, a more relevant curriculum, a more appropriate instructional process, a more flexible use of time and learning facilities, and a more rational pupil evaluation system.

Journal Articles

Baker, James, and Viola D. Johnson. "Another District Experiments with a 45-15 Plan." *School Management*, 17:3 (March 1973) pp. 21-24.

Under the 45-15 plan, this California school district is educating one-third more youngsters with no overcrowding, is eleminating double sessions, and is relieving taxpayers of the immediate need to build more schools by making fuller use of buildings that already exist.

Berger, Ellis. "Some 45-15 Drawbacks: The Teachers' View." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 56:6 (Feb. 1975) pp. 420-421.

There is strong teacher dissatisfaction with the 45-15 plan adopted in Pasco County, Florida, public schools. The article suggests increased teacher involvement in planning processes.

Howe, Paul H. "Year-round School Makes Good Business Sense Says This Boardman-Businessman." *American School Board Journal*, 160:2 (Feb. 1973) pp. 46-48.

Year-round schools make good business sense by providing (1) more efficient use of capital investments, (2) alleviation of uneconomical and undesirable peaks in working and recreation, and (3) a more sensible way of looking at teacher salaries.

Holt, Howard B. "Year-Round Schools and System Shock." *Phi Delta Kappan*, 54:5 (Jan. 1973) pp. 310-311.

The change to year-round schools may precipitate "system shock," which could lead to complete restructuring of curriculum, athletics, and organization.

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'Four Quarter' Makes a Whole Year in Atlanta

In Atlanta high schools a year-round schedule of classes is used to offer additional opportunities

By B. ROBERT ANDERSON
Mr. Anderson is a member of the Margate City (N.J.) Board of Education.

"This teacher is still using the old methods," a high school junior complained. "I'll be glad when the quarter is over and I can pick a different course."

"When I first saw the course guidelines I shuddered at the extra work," said one high school teacher. "But now I'm a convert. Teaching is more exciting and the students are more interested."

"There's a problem in the mechanics," one high school principal explained. "Really, I'd be in favor of an open campus. When you get right down to it, there's nothing sacred about an eight to three schedule."

What's it all about?

In Atlanta, Georgia, educational innovation is the watch-word, past history is no basis for dealing with current problems. Instead, a new philosophy permeates the city's high schools. Dr. E. Curtis Henson, Assistant Superintendent for Instruction said, "We are designing ways for children to learn things which are important to them and to magnify the differences in children. Our task is to find out exactly what and how they should be learning."

This attitude has led to the development of the Four Quarter School Year. Four Quarter, however, is much more than an equal division of time; it is the framework for a re-examination of educational thinking and, most important, a complete revision of the curriculum. The whole idea of creating more relevant course material is intermingled with class scheduling dictated by the desires and needs of the students.

To accomplish these goals required an atmosphere open to change—not renovation, not alteration, not modification—but a completely new structure which would serve the student. Superintendent John W. Letson set the stage by encouraging participation in the new undertaking; everyone was involved—students, parents, teachers and administrators. The "nothing is sacred" concept raised questions, and continues to raise questions, all of which tend to improve the quality of education in Atlanta's 28 high schools.

According to Dr. Henson, "We got started almost by accident." The idea of a year-round school had been discussed by the Atlanta Area Teachers Education Association, a consortium of university and public school educators that conducted in-service training sessions, seminars, studies and consulting work. In 1968 the eight school systems in the Metropolitan Atlanta area mounted a joint effort to plan a new high school curriculum. Involved were 300,000 elementary and high school students, about one-third of all pupils in public schools in the state of Georgia. Atlanta itself counts about 110,000 students, some 36,000 in high school.

(Ultimately, the eight systems implemented programs designed for their individual schools. But one result in Atlanta has been the move from a high school system which included grades eight to 12, to the more recently accepted middle school idea, restricting high school to grades nine to 12. Atlanta currently has several middle schools, others nearing conversion, and still more of them on the drawing board.)

The underlying need for massive curriculum change was fomented by social forces inherent in school systems all over the country: federally sponsored pro-

Dr. John W. Letson, Superintendent of Schools, Atlanta, Georgia.

Dr. E. Curtis Henson, Assistant Superintendent for Instruction.

grams designed to assist the low socio-economic population; development of articulate cadres in disadvantaged school districts; concentration of low-rent housing in minimum geographic space; expression of dissatisfaction by violence; increasingly large numbers of males who are unemployed or underemployed; artificially engendered work experiences and work programs; increased mobility within the city and between various school systems.

To solve some of these problems Atlanta decided to do three things: 1) determine the feasibility of organizing the high school calendar so that year-round educational opportunities could be provided and a more flexible schedule arranged, 2) establish a more relevant and up-to-date curriculum, and 3) deal with the reality that 25 percent of the students were already enrolled in summer sessions, and of these, 75 percent were taking advanced or enriched courses on a tuition basis.

As the analysis went forward it became obvious that year-round schools fail for a variety of reasons. First, they do not achieve expected economies. (They do, in fact, but only after a searching analysis, which finally results in more dollars being spent.) Second, the public fails to grapple with the basic reasons for the change and remains solidly entrenched with ideas whose time has passed. And third, there is a natural reluctance in the educational community to cope with change which upsets teaching modes. ("She's taught for twenty years; the first year repeated twenty times," is a constant complaint.)

What's good about it?

What are the benefits of the Four Quarter plan? Dr. Henson smiled broadly and ticked off the virtues:

—Continuous student progress.

—Technically, there are no failures.

—Teachers have the opportunity to work year-round if they wish, at increased salary. They do not get rusty.

—Buildings remain open and are not as subject to vandalism.

—Closing and opening preparations are minimized.

—100,000 students are not dumped on the streets at one time.

—Students may attend school part-time and can earn money throughout the year. (One student has managed to accumulate $1,000 a year toward his college tuition.)

—A student can adjust to his own learning style.

Now in its 15th quarter, the Atlanta system is steaming ahead. "It's difficult to come by hard data," Dr. Henson admits. "But we have a number of impressions. The attitude of the students is greatly improved. They try more subjects than before. One high school offered 128 courses, another 226, and we even have about 400 courses in another school. Conflicts between teachers and students have been minimized. After all, a quarter isn't very long. And, except for sequential courses, failures are meaningless, because the student has many options to select other courses which interest him. There are no courses by name or title which the student must take." There are, however, certain areas of study which must be taken

Computer's Role in Four Quarter

Tom McConnell moves loosely in front of the long blackboard in his office, quickly zipping circles around symbols and drawing directional arrows. "It leaves here, goes here, gets double-checked, and we have a final solution."

Every day is a new challenge for the Director of the Information Processing System (IPS) of the Atlanta Public Schools. There are so many applications for the EDP equipment that he and his staff barely have time to complete one project before another has sprung into being.

Here in the mechanical nerve-center of the school system, the massive scheduling for Atlanta high schools is carried out with a speed that defies telling. About 30 days into each quarter students begin to select the courses they wish to take in the next quarter. With the guidance of classroom teachers they fill out a tentative list of courses and have them approved. Selections are made from a curriculum catalogue which contains descriptions of some 900 courses. A coded course number identifies subject matter and links with other information stored in the computer relative to maximum seating, ideal seating, class length, days and the individual high schools.

When the students have made their decisions concerning what courses they want to take, they "bubble in" a special form, filling small circles with a lead pencil. The circles are number-coded and each student also has an identifying number. The forms are collected, delivered to the processing center, passed through an optical scanner and the information transferred to memory tapes. An initial printout details the courses selected, time slots and class lists.

Essentially, the system builds a student request file—substantiation that the course may be instituted. Obviously this first run is only the beginning, a trial master schedule which tells the pupils whether the course is "go" or "no go."

McConnell and his staff of 36 glow with pride at what they have accomplished. "Without the optical scanning capability you could never run Four Quarter," he said. They have, however, a heavy sense of responsibility. "We don't want to tell the school administration that a kid can't take a course because of the computer."

The key unit in the system is a National Computing System SENTRY 70 (Scan Entry) which is an optical "mark reader." The machine scans the "bubbles" and transfers the information to tapes which are fed into an IBM 360/50 computer. The original contract for the scanner calls for a five year rental at $1,950 a month. Now, after 18 months, Atlanta has made a proposal to buy the equipment under the terms of the agreement which allocated half the rental toward the purchase of the $73,000 unit.

After the trial master schedule is returned to the individual high schools, students who have selected courses which cannot be offered because of low enrollment make other choices. Again the scanner and computer combine to check and cross-check student selections and to revise schedules. The end result of this activity is a system which responds to student desires. Students may change their mind at any time up to the last minute. And pupils may drop or add a course at any time.

IPS operates 24 hours a day, seven days a week. Work brought in by 4:30 P.M. is ready for delivery by 8 A.M. the next morning. "We miss our goal once in a while," McConnell smiled, "but more often than not we're on target."

There are bugs in every system. At the Grady High School, Mrs. Marcell Scarboro is the registrar. She said, "The mechanics of students filling in the forms is a problem. We have two or three student aides who do the actual bubbling." However, she is quick to add, "The computer has improved this year—the scanning device has helped."

Essentially, the work load of the individual school registrars is the same, only now they prepare schedules four times a year instead of three times. And Mrs. Scarboro still does the summer schedule "by hand."

Once past the routine of scheduling the students, there are an infinite number of ways to capitalize on the sophisticated equipment. Jackie Reynolds is a systems analyst in charge of student applications. "Based on the information we gather initially from the scheduling program," she

for a required number of quarters.

Departing from the historical precedents of what material courses should contain, the Atlanta school system reexamined, scrutinized, dissected and reassembled bodies of information into smaller, more significant blocks of knowledge. "As an example," Dr. Henson explained, "we found that 'family budgeting' was being taught in home economics, general business and general math. So the committees created a one-quarter course in family budgeting, and lifted that material from the other courses. That way you can schedule a course in a specific subject, and all of the interested students can go to class together."

Developing the new courses

These investigations showed that 14 different subjects required sequential learning. But, once past the basics, the opportunity for students to specialize in a given area were wide open. Originally some 860 courses were delineated in the curriculum catalogue, a number which has since grown to 900. Each quarter students select the courses they wish to take and scheduling of courses is based on what the students want to study. (See "The Computer's Role in Atlanta's Four Quarter," below, for details of how this is accomplished.)

To avoid the pitfalls inherent in a lack of communications and to preserve the aura of participation, all the Metropolitan Atlanta educators gathered over the summer of 1968 and established a structure for cooperative action. They formed a steering committee, intersystem curriculum committee, intersystem subject area committee, local system subject area committee and a local schools subject area committee.

As the work trickled downward, Atlanta itself developed task forces: department chairmen committees and a small group to consolidate reports, principals with counsellors and another small group to consolidate reports, superintendent's staff and the Board of Education. As the finalized report states, "Input from all special interest groups concerning the nature of the new curriculum was considered. The ideas were merged into overall working guides for the committees."

The working guidelines recognize many challenging problems: "course offerings and content should be adequate to provide continuous progress for any student enrolled," "major concepts within any subject area which a pupil might learn should be identified and listed," "courses should be in keeping with the characteristics of the pupils for whom the course is designed."

During all these deliberations, the Board of Education was extremely cooperative. Arrangements were made for radio interviews, newspaper articles abounded, staff and teachers held many meetings with the PTA's, faculty counselled with students—in short, the overall effort was completely integrated.

In retrospect, Jimmy Fain, a 35-year veteran of the Atlanta Schools and currently Director of Curriculum, saw Four Quarter as an instrument for changing the curriculum. "As a principal, I hadn't really thought about curriculum change," he said. "Chopping up two semesters of

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said, "we have gotten into a number of other areas. From teacher attendance reports we provide records every 20 days which provide the data for our state funding. Grade reporting and class roll forms go back to the students and to the school offices."

It is in the area of "other things" that a computer center really performs. McConnell explained, "we have instituted an AV booking system. Teachers ask for materials, bubbling in appropriate forms, and we order all their needs for delivery when they are wanted. The same thing applies to media purchases."

Lately, the scanner has been programmed to handle diagnostic tests at the elementary school level which will become part of the students' records. "We're even getting into some IQ testing," McConnell reports. "We're almost to capacity on our IBM equipment, but we still have a good bit of time left on the scanner."

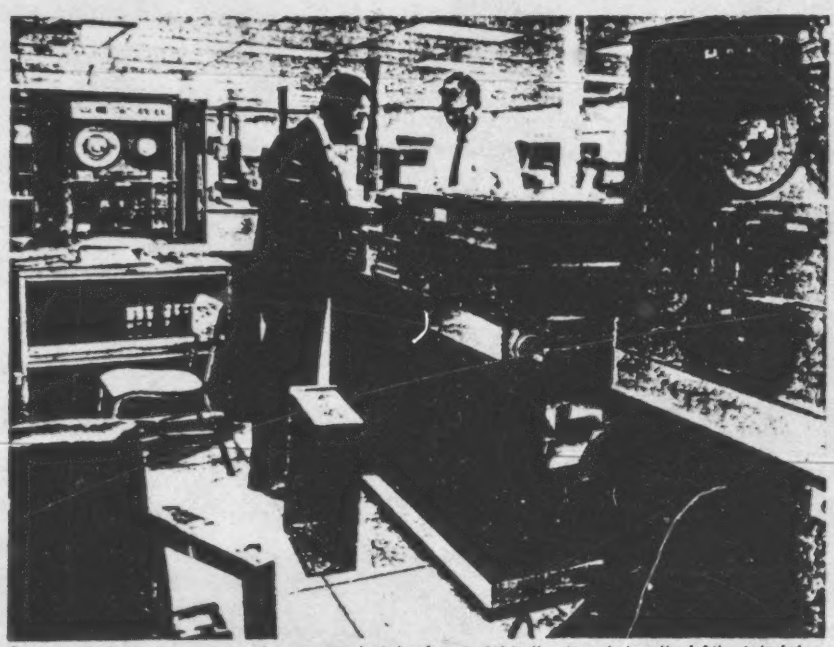
Recently, the Atlanta Schools were awarded the Encyclopaedia Britannica's 1972 School Library Award. The report of this honor was shared with IPS because it has carried out the actual procurement of books for the individual libraries in the school system.

Although the computer handles other tasks—such as payroll, cafeteria accounting, checks, issuance of claims for federal reimbursement and budgetary procedures—the staff is still constantly on the lookout for new uses. Seventeen high schools have typewriter-like terminals that are linked by telephone lines to the main computer. Students use this equipment as part of "problem-solving" work.

To help the students' work, two staff members have prepared "A Programming Language" booklet for student use. APL is a simplified "conversational" computer language which permits students to use the computer for individualized instruction and investigations.

This quest for fresh ways to capitalize on the existing equipment has led the EDP people into many fields. Even the grade of lead pencils (No. 2½ or softer) used throughout the public schools is selected because it can be accommodated to the scanning machine.

To ride herd on this overpowering operation it is not unusual for Tom McConnell to "drop by in the middle of the night." However, he and his staff thrive on the challenge. He sums up his attitude with the statement, "It's easier to get forgiveness than to get permission." ■



Optical reader being prepared to scan a batch of material in the "workshop" of Atlanta's Information Processing System.

work into four quarters made no particular sense. Atlanta went all the way and developed new courses which are not recognizable by past references. The greatest thing is that we have given flexibility to the students."

Since textbooks are not written on a Four Quarter basis, the content of the new program required new teaching guidelines. Each new course contains specific information on: student characteristics, course description, administrative requirements, content, behavioral objectives, suggested procedures, references and aids, performance objectives and evaluations.

As Fain explained, "We involved as many teachers as possible in writing these guides. And each team had a librarian assigned to it. Getting the teachers out of a rut was a problem—but, we've come a long way."

From this overview, flow charts were devised which pinpoint how the student might progress from more basic courses into specialized areas. Those youngsters preparing for college entry are guided along certain lines (see chart on page 10). But, more important, many options exist for all students. An example of this can be found in English, where 50 subject areas were identified. This meant that students could serve their own desires—one of the prime considerations of Four Quarter. As Jimmy Fain pointed out, "The student is required to take any 12 quarters of English. Before he had virtually no choice at all."

The plan was first implemented in the fall of 1968. High school students in the more affluent areas tended to take fewer courses, those designed for college entry. Pupils in schools from economic middle-class areas took more varied courses. Then, during the third quarter of operation, students began to expand their horizons and adapt to the new form of education. Some reduced their academic load, others arranged schedules which permitted them to work all year long, and a few took time off during the winter months.

What happened when?

The real test of the program came in the first fourth quarter. This was the time formerly thought of as summer school. Almost 13,000 pupils (about 39 percent) opted for education rather than vacation. The flexibility of scheduling allowed students to take one or more courses depending on their own individual desires and needs. Over 70 percent of the courses taken were advanced, the remainder were remedial.

Subsequent quarters reflect a similar pattern, with few students taking winter vacations. Some do, however, and with good reason. One family had the chance to spend three months in Europe; the father had a special assignment. The two high-school-age daughters elected to skip the third quarter that year and make up their work in the summer.

One of the key links in this chain of education is guidance. As students select the next course they wish to take, the teachers must approve the choice. In other words, the decision to move into other areas must carry with it the acknowledgment that the pupil is ready for a more advanced quarter. The effect has been a sort of "accountability" between members of the faculty. Since "failure" has little significance, the task of advising the student falls more and more into the hands of the classroom teacher, who in reality knows the student best.

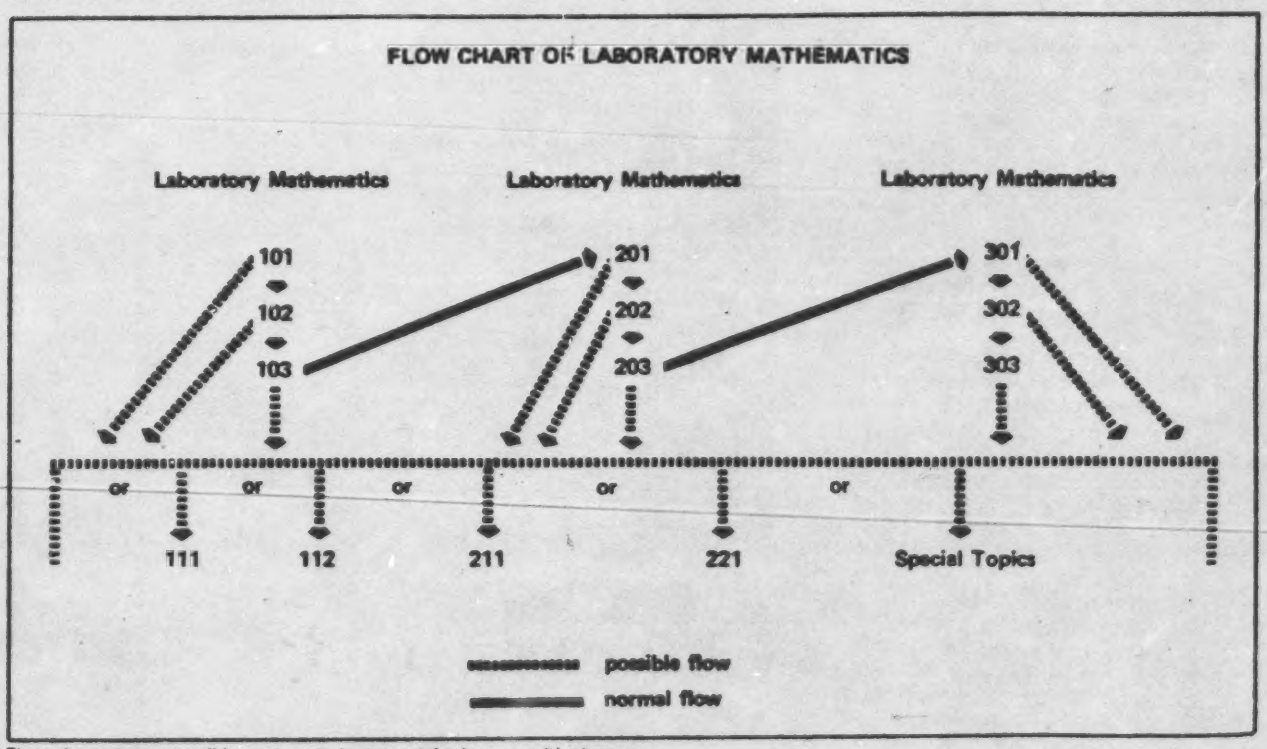
To some degree the role of the teacher has taken on added significance. According to Dr. Henson, "The teacher's role is more than that of a dispenser of information. You wouldn't expect a doctor to dispense medicine without a diagnosis. The public has stereotyped and limited the teacher's role—the teacher must deal with the entire human being."

Moreover, this approach takes an inordinate burden from the guidance counsellor, who now devotes more time to "real" problems. Raymond Bridges, psychologist at the Grady High School, said, "Prior to Four Quarter we dealt with students in a set pattern. The usual question we asked students was 'Why are you failing?' It's a hundred percent better now."

Lumps and bumps

Does this mean failures have declined? Not necessarily. It means failure does not carry a stigma of utter defeat. When a student runs across a subject or a teacher who he either "would not or could not handle," under Four Quarter he merely sidesteps the problem and goes on to another course. As Bridges said, "We teachers have hollered for individualized education. Well, many of the answers to this quest can be found in Four Quarter. I was anti-Four Quarter, but now I'm completely convinced of its value. We're on the right road and it's full of lumps."

One of the lumps most educators run



Flow chart shows possible routes student can take in one subject area.

into these days is a heavy dropout rate. Harold Miller is the assistant-principal at Howard High School, located in a low-to-middle income neighborhood. "Our dropout rate used to run 40 percent. Now, under Four Quarter, it's getting better. We sure haven't solved the problem, but we are seeing changes. The first thing we have to do is get the kids into the building. The flexibility under Four Quarter gives us more leeway to experiment."

Because the students determine what courses shall be offered in any quarter, Miller foresees more vocational training. "My outlook has changed" he said. "Students have more civil liberties. The days of the old autocratic system are over—motivation is the key."

Part of this motivation can be seen in the idea that "problem children are better served when they come to school and take what they want to take." As Miller expressed it, "There's nothing holy about taking courses in sequence."

Still, the reaction of the students is one of accommodation. Those pupils now in their senior year are the only ones who know Four Quarter completely. To them, selecting their own course of study, moving freely into areas which offer the most promise, has become "ordinary." The thought that high school students in other parts of the country are constrained in lock-step educational patterns, comes as a surprise. As these students move on to college, they will be forced to revert to the "old ways."

"This is a problem we haven't really confronted," Dr. Henson said. "We're trying to prepare students for decision-making." Then he laughed and made the observation, "You never arrive—you're always coming."

Budget business

One of the major concerns of educators is the expense of operating schools year-round. "It's pretty obvious," Dr. Henson reports, "that four of anything are going to cost more than three." However, the added cost requires some interpretation. Under the old "summer school" system, the Board of Education collected about $400,000 in tuition. When Four Quarter went into effect, teachers had to be paid on scale instead of a flat $12 to $15 a day. Thus, an additional $1½ million was added to the total budget of about $65 million (1968-69). When the number of students is considered and the cost per unit of education, the dollar expenditure seems nominal. Last year the total budget amounted to $85 million.

There was little effect on the total accounting procedure in the comptroller's office. Walt Mayfield, assistant comptroller, said, "The impact was not that great. We already had a summer school program, only now we do not have the responsibility of collecting tuition."

An exact measure of what the Board of Education is getting for the increased expenditure is unclear. As Mayfield reports, "We're accountable for the flow of money, not necessarily how well it is spent. However, as with all things, if it can be done, it can be measured."

Director of Information Processing System explains Braille printout to Mrs. Richard Nixon and Dr. Benjamin Mays, President of Board of Education.

Faced with rising costs, the Atlanta Board of Education has been forced to raise the tax rate from 16¼ mills in 1961 to 30¾ mills in 1972, despite an increase in property evaluation of about 65 percent. Cost per pupil has risen from $285.16 in 1960-61 to $768.92 in 1970-71. But these increases are part of an overall problem and do not reflect the cost of Four Quarter as such.

New opportunities

Armed with new found flexibility many special learning opportunities have been offered to students. Oceanography is open to all high school seniors with an interest and aptitude in the sciences. A drama workshop includes play writing and acting. And Operation Upstream is designed to help boys develop a better understanding of themselves and society.

There is also a wide-open program known as Expiration Quarter, in which students may pursue any subject they wish. Dr. Henson said, "It thrilled me no end to talk with some of the youngsters. One girl got involved in social work. She interviewed various social agencies, went to meetings, welfare offices, met with business leaders, and even visited private homes. The end result of this effort was a complete journal of activities which was approved by her instructor."

Any student may enroll in Expiration Quarter with the approval of a teacher in the subject area. The work is carried out in the field, the teacher serving as a resource person. One black student reported, "I had a real hang-up about white people. I found out that people are people. I also found out that I have to be responsible about what I represent. For the first time in my life I have wanted to be punctual."

Naturally, these innovative programs have drawn the attention of educators from all over the country. To meet the demand, a visitation bureau has been established under the direction of Mary Ann Werthen. Last year about 2,000 teachers and administrators visited the Instructional Services Center (2930 Forrest Hill Drive S.W., Atlanta, Ga. 30315).

In addition, four two-day seminars are conducted for a modest registration fee of $10 with groups ranging from 30 to 70. The peak meeting was one of 500 curious educators. In 1971 Dr. Henson delivered 50 speeches explaining Four Quarter to interested groups, and his travel schedule carried him on a whirlwind 100,000 miles of educational venture.

Curriculum revision is now considered a constant need. Other areas are under examination, such as behavioral objectives, diagnostic testing, and more sophisticated and relevant measures of educational success. "Cognitive learning is the lowest level of education," Dr. Henson asserts. "Let's measure the effectiveness of a high school education not by Merit Scholarships, but rather by new yardsticks, parental support of children, participation in civic affairs, elections, credit ratings and arrest records. Whatever values we say are important, let's measure them."

In Atlanta, the word is forward and onward to better educational opportunities. Four Quarter is considered the swiftest, strongest, surest vehicle for realizing this goal. ■

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For your thinking,
for your planning,
for your doing—
the complete story,

How to make the switch to year-round

The chairman of the committee studying year-round education stood near the chalkboard on which he had written the committee's suggestion for a new 12-month school calendar. Above a complicated diagram showing attendance groups and days in school and days out, he printed in bold letters: ONCE ADOPTED, THIS CALENDAR WILL NOT BE CHANGED.

After deliberation the committee agreed the schedule was a good one. Then one member of the committee rose: "Mind if I make a correction?" He went to the board, erased the sentence his fellow member had written and wrote in his own. The statement now read: THIS CALENDAR SUBJECT TO CHANGE WITH DUE NOTICE.

A good point. No school calendar ever has been, ever will be, or ever should be, permanent. Three considerations make a school calendar constantly subject to change:

What is good for the student.

What is good for the budget.

What suits the lifestyle of the community.

Currently, as it happens, all three of these elements seem to warrant a change in the traditional school year. And there you have the answer to: Why, suddenly, is everyone talking about year-round schools?

Year-round schools is a concept with a potential of more than 16,000 different implementation plans (one for each school district in the nation). If everyone in a district (I mean everyone: taxpayers, teachers, students and parents) has been thoroughly rehearsed about what year-round can mean to them, then school officials are ready to start discussing specific implementation plans. If, however, your district is still at the talking stage, then talk concept, not plans.

The year-round concept is already putting to pasture several of our educational sacred cows: September-to-June as the only acceptable period in which students can meet state attendance requirements (usually 180 days); Carnegie Units (one credit for one year of study of one subject) as the only way to measure progress; and June promotions as the only way to move forward. With these bonds of tradition loosened, there is new freedom to set up attendance patterns that are better for an entire school district or for one school or for one neighborhood or for one family or even for one student.

Year-round has grown impressively in its appeal to school boards not because it will have students attending school on a 12-months basis but because it enables school authorities to scatter nine months of attendance over twelve, choosing days in and days out as academics, economics and family lifestyles suggest.

But to the uninitiated, year-round has an ominous sound. The taxpayer, clutching his wallet, sobs. "I can't do it." Father and Mother, with visions of the usual two weeks at the seashore dancing in their heads, offer: Uh, uh. Son, glaring at his textbooks, finalizes it all: "No way." It might have been better to launch the year-round concept under the name: flexible calendar. Flexibility is the real breakthrough, and you'll want to explore what your community can do with this new flexibility and recommend what it should do.

Your board can begin with any one of the three major considerations: academic, economic or lifestyle. Eventually you must consider all three, but it is safest to begin where you see the greatest need for change to solve a pressing problem. Keep in mind that the burden of proof rests with those who advocate change, or: If a problem does not exist, why not leave things as they are? A good question for which you'd best have an excellent answer.

You may doubt the continuing wisdom of September-to-June schooling for a number of reasons: classes move through the year at a pace that is dangerously slow for the fast, disastrously fast for the slow; students will suffer if no buildings are built and taxpayers will suffer if they are; or attendance has become ragged at those times when

N.S. Rifkin, a free-lance writer living in Virginia, is a longtime observer and reporter of the year-round phenomenon.

schools

parents see the need for vacation breaks and schools do not.

Whatever the reasons for casting aspersions on September-to-June, your approach to the community in behalf of a year-round school plan should be essentially the same:

(1) This is the current situation; (2) this is what is wrong with the situation; (3) this is the change we propose; (4) this is what the change can accomplish.

Some school districts began their year-round courtship with the academic issue. In Atlanta, summer courses were watered-down versions of year-long courses, and the summer sessions neither served the needs of those who were repeating nor of those who were moving ahead. Atlanta's high schools now operate on a year-round plan that offers four independent terms of equal academic value and approximately of the same length, three of them required and the fourth optional.

Dade County (Miami), Florida, saw a need for shorter, more intense courses and more variety. Its schools now offer high school students five independent terms and 1,300 course titles from which to choose. Four nine-week terms are required, the fifth is optional.

Hayward, Calif., concerned about the learning loss during long summers and the fatigue of long winters, now alternates short terms and short vacations throughout the year. Students have more opportunities to relax, less time to forget, and a better opportunity to catch up.

Mankato, Minn., has gone even further. Convinced that a youngster learns best what he wants to learn most, Mankato's board has broken its schools free of many traditional constraints. Students (K-12) come to school when they choose, study what they choose and are free of study halls, dress codes, attendance requirements, report cards, and grade point averages — month in and month out.

The school districts of Atlanta, Dade County, Hayward and Mankato were fortunate. None was experiencing a bond bust nor a space crisis, and each could focus on the needs of students as scholars. The move to year-round taken by the Valley View school district, near Lockport, Ill., and by Dale City, in Prince William County (Virginia) began of necessity with financial considerations. Nevertheless, school officials from both districts consider their solutions to be dollarwise and scholarwise as well.

Schools in Valley View and in Dale City operate on a short school term, short vacation plan similar to Hayward's, but to obtain maximum space use, both districts stagger vacations. Not all students are in or out of school at the same time. Each school term is approximately nine weeks long and each vacation three weeks, but because holidays have a way of popping up here and there, some calendar weeks have fewer school days than others. The school terms in Valley View and Dale City, therefore, are counted not by calendar weeks but by periods of 45 school *days*. Four terms equal the 180 school days required by the state. Each term is followed by a 15-day vacation period.

Under this year-round quarter system, a school's student body is divided into four groups. Fifteen days after the first group begins its 45-day term the second group begins its own 45-day term, 15 days after that the third group begins. By the time the fourth group is ready to start, the first has completed 45 days and is ready for its 15 days of vacation. It's called, as you might have suspected, the 45-15 plan.

Any plan that has groups of students taking turns attending school can help ease space problems — provided that attendance patterns are prescribed. How much space is relieved depends upon the particular plan. Under a quinmester plan that tells students which four terms to go to school and which additional term to take as vacation, a district need provide space for only four-fifths of its students at any one time. Put the community on a quarter plan, divide the student body into four groups and tell each group which three quarters to attend and which quarter to regard as vacation, and three schools may be able to do the work of four.

In devising the number of terms and number of days in those terms, here are a couple of importants-to-remember:

- The minimum number of days in school for any group of students must meet state requirements (usually 180 days for a single school year). But all terms need not contain the same number of days, and in some year-round plans they don't. Increasing the number of hours in the school day (see accompanying article on page 48) means that the number of days in certain terms can be shortened so that eight weeks of this term equal nine weeks of that one, academically speaking. Your state department of education must, of course, agree in advance to any such honest finagling.
- The age of students will help determine the length of school and vacation terms. Vacations under a quarter plan can mean three 60-day terms and one 60-day vacation — stretches that may be too long for

young children but great for job holding high schoolers. For younger pupils it may be better to subdivide the 60-day terms and allow each child to attend all four quarters with the last 15 days of each quarter designated for vacation (45-15, again). With flexible hours and flexible days the combinations and permutations are nearly endless. Hence, the attraction and proliferation of year-round plans.

Supporters of year-round plans that alternate short terms and short vacations are convinced that those plans save space, save dollars and are good for students. Atlanta school officials will tell you that their year-round plan has witnessed a reduction in high school failures, an increase in numbers graduated, and that students who want to take more courses are doing so and some are being graduated sooner. Dade County will tell you that year-round has brought new life and enthusiasm to the schools and that courses meet student needs and interests better than ever before. Dale City students will tell you that school is more fun and so are vacations.

Everyone, however, does not rally round year-round plans.

The academic issue is getting bogged down in the infernal problem of trying to prove on paper what you feel in your bones, and some evaluators have been hard put to prove that reading, writing and arithmetic improve after one year of short terms and short vacations.

Short terms and short vacations can be a problem, some warn, if younger pupils are shunted from teacher to teacher, rather than having a particular teacher or teaching team following the youngster's schedule. Another warning: Intermediate and high school teachers and students can confront disadvantages arising from terms that are too short for a teacher to develop material adequately and build student-teacher rapport. Who to believe? Talk to the man who owns one and find out.

As realistic (some say, hard-nosed) school board members and superintendents well know, price tags must be checked carefully before any academic innovation is bought. One report on Atlanta's year-round operation claimed the school district paid an extra $1.8 million in added costs during the year-round plan's first quarter of operation. But Atlanta's plan was never meant to be a dollar saver. It entailed a basic rewriting of the curriculum to create a wide variety of short courses that could be offered each quarter all through the year with the needs and interests of high school students as a key consideration.

A 1971 report on Valley View indicates that initially the district's year-round plan would save $6 million because it solved a space problem and obviated, consequently, needs for extra bonding, extra building, extra interest and extra insurance. A complete report on the operating costs of the Valley View plan has yet to be issued, but per-pupil costs seem to have dropped significantly since the plan was first introduced.

The National School Public Relations Association cites Dale City's 45-15 plan as compelling evidence that year-round can save money in building costs and in operating costs. The plan has accounted for per-pupil savings to the district of nearly 10 percent.

Education is full of experts and some of the most reliable of them swear that certain year-round plans can save money, while other experts, equally as reliable, retort: No; increases in salaries under year-round plans will offset other savings. There is virtual agreement, however, that enlarged teacher payrolls account for the greatest share of increased costs generated by year-round plans.

But year-round plans with their

Shorter courses-longer year:

Educators have nightmares, and, often, dreams. One of the dreams: To be able to offer every student what he needs to learn and what he wants to learn and to make that offer when the student is ready for it. The partnership of shorter courses-longer year may be one that can help your schools move, bit by bit — *literally*, bit by bit — closer to that dream.

Year-round schooling means that school is always in session. No child is always in school, but the child who is finding the academic road a bit bumpy or the child who has had a long illness can attend school during vacation. Someone is always at school teaching; someone is always there learning.

Short courses mean that a year's course is broken up into mini-courses. Students still attend school, say, 180 days a year, but they do so in little bits that are easier to handle, more palatable. If a student fails a course or is bored to tears by it, he's lost an investment numbered in days or weeks instead of an entire year.

Put them together — shorter courses, longer year — and they sing sweet music to students: "Here is something to learn. Set your own pace. Go as quickly as you want or as slowly as you must. Don't let that September-to-June stretch psych you out. Here's all you need to learn for now, just this little bit. When you're ready, move on."

For the younger and the older student the message is the same, but the mechanics are different. On the elementary scene: The shorter course itself is not new, but is a refinement of a trend that has been developing steadily over the past few years: continuous progress in an ungraded class. What is new is the chance for a child to continue that progress during vacation time. What is newer still is the scattering of that vacation time throughout the year so that the chance to catch up comes when it is most likely to be needed. So does the chance to relax and to return refreshed by a change of pace and place. So does the chance to make a brand new beginning before the skills and knowledge of the previous "year" have grown stale.

A look now at high school, where

inherent increases in labor costs may help school boards get off the horns of this dilemma: Teachers work nine months of the year, but teachers eat and live 12 months of the year; so do we pay teachers for nine months of work or for 12 months of living? Year-round pay for year-round work could help both teachers and school boards alike to get a cleaner look at education's real labor costs.

Just as there is fairly general agreement that year-round school plans mean higher labor costs, so also is there widespread agreement that these same plans save money in buildings and facilities. Under many year-round plans, three schools operating all year can accomplish as much as can four schools operating from September to June. And in some school districts additional costs of keeping schools, facilities and buses operating all year can be virtually nonexistent because these districts hitherto had operated extensive summer school programs. The operation of summer school programs — which usually consist either of "enrichment" courses or crash efforts to fix things that went wrong between September and June — hardly constitutes a year-round school program. A real year-round plan entails *coordinated* efforts to evaluate, record and, above all, assist student progress at regular intervals throughout the year.

While year-round opponents will concede that the concept can save building/facilities costs, they argue that year-round will only put off the inevitable need to build — and put it off to a time when inflation will have increased costs.

Here's the ready reply from year-round fans: Year-round schooling makes more efficient use of existing buildings, and if more school buildings are needed, fine; year-round plans will make more efficient use of them, also. And, the fans continue, if the U.S. birthrate stabilizes at its current replacement level, perhaps school districts will be able to get out from under the gun of build, build, build. Anyhow, the whole matter of future building needs is really one of projecting enrollments.*

Advice from a moderate: Better to consider year-round plans as ways to improve education and to get more and better education from the dollar than to look to year-round as an economic panacea that magically will change your district's ledger ink from red to shiny black.

Let's say your district is convinced year-round is worth looking into. That means only that you've

*See "How to forecast school enrollments accurately — and years ahead," by Stanton Leggett. The American School Board JOURNAL, January 1973.

the partnership may work in your district

life is not a set of steps from grade to grade to grade but a world of courses to be taken and credits to be earned. The mini-courses have enlarged that world, expanding choices that already existed and providing many new choices where there had been none.

To the student's required study, year-round school has added a vital new element: the right to select what he feels will mean most to him. English, for example, is still required, but the student no longer moves inexorably from English I to English II, III, IV. Where there are mini-courses he can choose what he needs most: a course in Expository Writing or in Improving Sentence Structure and Variety, or in Developing Word Power. He also can choose what seems most relevant: a course called Language and Behavior or one called Facing Life of Man and his Emotions, or Variations on Black Themes or the Dynamics of Politics.

Students still take Social Studies, but it is no longer one required course in American History and one in Government, with Geography and World Civilization as the only options. With mini-courses, the options can and do become: Minorities in American Society; Changing Cities; Cartography; The Latin American Struggle for Stability; Drugs and Society; Dissent and Change.

Add mini-credit (credit earned for material learned) to the mini-course concept and the blessings multiply. If a student fails a course, he loses a few weeks or a few months, not a year. If the failed course is not needed or wanted, the student moves on to something else. If he must have a particular course, the student can take it again — perhaps with a new book, a new teacher, in a new room and at a new hour of the day. He is afforded a fresh start and he is relieved. So are his fellow students and the teacher, who are free to move on to more advanced work.

Experimental courses, because they involve only a fraction of the year, are glady offered and gladly taken in a district that operates mini-courses and gives mini-credit. There is so little to lose and so much to gain. The student, able to drop, advance, repeat and explore, can dare to learn more.

To those who feel that a year is brief enough and that dividing it into thirds and quarters and fifths is an indulgence, a word about the relativity of time. When you're pushing 50, a year is brief. When you're 15, it is not; it is 1/15th of your lifetime; it is an unbearably long time.

Where space is no problem and mini-courses can be offered year-round, the options continue to multiply. Required to attend only 180 days out of 240, but with courses offered throughout the 240, the student is free not only to choose what to study but when, and even how many courses to take. A light load all year? Then he can hold down a full-time job if he wants to. The usual load, but 240 days not 180? Then he can be graduated early. Summer school work in place of a fall or winter term? Then he can take an off-season vacation and, perhaps, hold down an off-beat job. Lost credits? He can make them up during his vacation. Extra courses he doesn't need but wants? He can take these any time. — N.S.R.

agreed to begin the journey, and you're still a long way from even touching a scheduling sheet. Here are six of the hurdles you'll have to clear along the way, including one called: community lifestyles.

1. In some states, changes in legislation must precede changes in the school calendar. If year-round threatens state aid based on average daily attendance (some year-round plans call for a sizable portion of the student body to be out of school at any given term), then you and your state authorities will need to work out a new formula.

2. Changes may have to be made in school procedures and in interschool rules to prevent students from missing out on athletics, choir, debate, band, student government and other extracurricular activities. Additional transportation may have to be arranged so that students can participate in activities during their vacation periods. What will this cost, and who will pay for it?

3. If your proposed calendar is set up with alternating short terms and short vacations because you think this is best for elementary school children, what options can you offer high school students, especially juniors and seniors, so they can still hold down jobs for fun and profit? Will the option be part-time school, part-time jobs year-round? Will it be intensive short courses during vacations so that a student can pile up courses and credits by full-time attendance during school terms *and* vacation periods until he or she has accumulated sufficient credits to arrange a long-term vacation block in order to hold a full-time job? Give parents and students an opportunity to tell your board what they think.

4. What about flexibility for teachers and other employes? Will everyone have to work the full year or will contract options be offered? What arrangements will be made for inservice training and career development? Will teachers be permitted to take time off for travel and study? Will local colleges and universities offer courses on a schedule compatible with that of the schools? When you take your proposed year-round schedule to the public, school employes will be standing behind you. Make sure they're smiling.

5. Be prepared for opposition to a new school calendar. It would be unrealistic to expect anything else, because a change to year-round is complicated, affects many different people in many different ways, and demands extensive adjustment, some of it personal.

But opposition can be reduced substantially by good, solid information that is freely disseminated to the community. Rumors have a way of rushing in to fill factual voids.

6. Now about lifestyles. A school calendar and a community's lifestyles must be compatible. If conflicts exist between calendar and lifestyles, find them and try to resolve them. No matter how many potential complications you find,

Step by step, month by month, here's how

Launch a year-round school planning project tomorrow morning and, if the project is successful, you probably can expect to celebrate the opening of your district's first year-round school about the time this country is celebrating its bicentennial — three years from now. If you're startled that it might take so long to change the traditional school calendar to year-round, you might be out and out shocked at the exhausting amount of effort a change to year-round can require. Here is what one school district — Prince William County (Virginia) — went through:

1968: The school board establishes an office of research and development (R&D) and gives the office responsibility for bringing needed educational change to the district's schools. R&D sets its first ambitious goal: establishing a climate of change.

Summer 1969: With help from the Universities of Virginia and Massachusetts and with funds from Title V (sections D and B2 of the Educational Professions Development Act) R&D operates a two-week institute. Its goal: Involve members of the district's administrative, supervisory and teaching staffs in a project of sensitizing the entire county to change.

October 1969: R&D claims first victory: After months of effort it's agreed that a climate of change has been established. R&D recommends that the school board authorize a study of year-round education. Recommendation accepted.

November 1969: While school board members are observing many different year-round plans in operation, all available information is shared with parent-teacher associations and civic organizations. Annual inservice workshops are devoted to subject of change. Total teacher population of 1,500 attends and participates in programs about humanizing instruction, staff utilizations, flexible scheduling and team teaching. Careful evaluation determines the workshops are *not* a success. R&D recommends more time to plan for changes in curriculum and school calendar. The school board agrees.

Winter 1970: Teachers and administrators are given opportunities to visit schools outside the district and attend conferences that deal with educational change. Teachers are encouraged to invent new and better instructional programs. Out of this effort comes 64 new teacher-devised programs of which not one is aborted or receives negative feedback from community, students or other teachers.

Change begins.

The district's public relations office keeps the public informed through newspapers, radio and educational television. School administrators and county officials develop two-way communications that enable them to

community members always will be able to find one more. Know how many people are *substantially* affected by a year-round calendar and what can be done by the school or the community or the individual to make the year-round transition as painless as possible. Lifestyles are more flexible than most people are willing to admit.

Here are only a few of the lifestyle questions that a community will ask. They all begin with: *What about:*

- *working mothers?* Parents — especially female breadwinners — who have arranged for a sitter to care for their children after school and during the summer may panic at the thought of a different kind of school year. A new sitter schedule may be no more difficult to devise than was the old schedule (with year-round plans using staggered vacations, sitter schedules may be easier to work out), but working mothers must be convinced of that. Tell her and *show* her that her children and her job can survive the transition to year-round.
- *vacation Bible school?* No reason for it to suffer excommunication. Year-round schools usually offer the same number of vacation days as do traditional school years, but the vacation days will be in different places. If the original schedule of vacation Bible school was established to work with the traditional school year, new schedules can be made to work with new school calendars.
- *summer recreation?* Recreation programs should provide stimulating and rewarding activities for children when they are out of school — no matter when they are out of school. And year-round can help stop the feast-or-famine situation faced by many recreation facilities that are glutted during the summer and vacant the rest of the year.
- *summer camps?* They may, they should, and they probably will become camps for all seasons in line with the national year-round resort trend. Who will run year-round camps? Teachers with contract options and students with attendance options.
- *outdoor swimming and the idea of the good old summer time?* Students do not swim or attend school all day. Hours during summer sessions can be shortened and homework requirements can be eased. The good old summertime will surely survive.

School districts just beginning to examine year-round plans are fortunate: Pioneers already have blazed a trail and found ways around many of the obstacles. In 1971, 27 school districts were offering year-round schooling; a year later the number had grown to 55. The early explorers have left behind them mountains of literature showing the good and bad sides of year-round (for a free list of available publications about year-round schooling, circle 79 on one of the yellow reader reply cards inside the covers of this issue). It can't hurt to take a look. □

one district put year-round into operation

explore problems common to the schools and the county. Officials from the schools and the county meet in a three-day retreat.

Summer 1970: Special programs are conducted for teachers and administrators (community members, students and the general public are invited). Their aim: developing new instructional programs.

October 1970: Inservice programs for teachers and administrators are continued half-day per month.

December 1970: Committee that has been investigating how year-round schools might help solve space problems makes its recommendations:

(1) A four-quarter school year is ruled out because 25 percent of the student population would be forced to take winter vacations of two or three months duration. Protest would be vigorous.

(2) Also ruled out is a calendar plan of nine-week terms interspersed with three-week vacations under which students could choose which terms they would attend — disqualified because it offers no way to assure that school attendance would be spread evenly over the year and thus solve the space problem.

(3) Finally, a mandatory plan under which 25 percent of the student body would take a three-week vacation every nine weeks is recommended. This plan is the same as (2) but mandatory element makes it most workable.

School board directs administrators to explain the mandatory plan to the public.

Board checks on material, resources, facilities and personnel needed to implement year-round.

Plans are drawn and a time schedule developed.

Costs for further curriculum development and for air conditioning are calculated — both elements are necessary, with or without the advent of year-round schools.

Change in attendance record-keeping is necessary to continue receiving state aid funds.

Formal and informal meetings, the news media, and opinion surveys all help keep public and total school staff informed.

January 1971: Open line of communications between school and county finally pays off as County Board of Supervisors OK's $35,000 for a study of air conditioning and for curriculum planning. County government is now officially and publicly committed to a program of change.

March 1971: County Board of Supervisors provides $145,763 to cover costs of air conditioning two K-6 schools as well as for curriculum development, administrative and clerical assistance and maintenance.

Survey of parents indicates that 66.4 percent are in favor of year-

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THE YEAR-ROUND SCHOOL: FADDISH OR FEASIBLE?

by Leonard Ernst

Like fashions of the Forties, the extended school year is an idea whose time has come once again.

If 1971 goes down in educational history as the year of the big push for year-round schools, it won't be without reason. More districts than ever — the National Education Association estimates 600 — are seriously studying proposals that would extend the school year beyond its current nine-month calendar. Only a handful actually have adopted year-round plans, but scores may follow suit before the school year's end.

Why all this revival of interest in year-round operations? After all, plans for them have been around a long time, and the typical schoolman already knew that these plans supposedly save money by stretching the use of existing facilities. The answer: the widely touted success of two recent and unique year-round plans: (1) Atlanta's voluntary four-quarter plan for secondary students, and (2) the 45-15 plan in the Valley View Elementary School District, Romeoville, Ill. Both plans have been rapturously reported in the educational and general press as showing that, at long last, there are feasible plans for year-round schools.

But if schoolmen flirting with the idea of year-round schools are looking at these two plans as the ideal models — and many of them are — they had better be careful. Despite the barrage of favorable publicity, the plans are a mixture of pluses and minuses. They are not panaceas for fund-strapped school districts, and they do not solve all the problems that traditionally surrounded year-round school operation.

The Atlanta plan: Five and a half years ago, Fulton County (Atlanta), Georgia educators found that, although one-fourth of all high school students were attending summer school and paying for it, the summer program was not a good one — it didn't have the same "integrity" as regular sessions. From this critical look evolved a voluntary four-quarter program which phased out the traditional nine-month structure, the Carnegie Credit Unit the concept of a totally sequential curriculum, and once-a-year scheduling.

Atlanta spent $1 million in federal grants and two years to prepare its year-round program. Starting in 1968-69, students in Grades 8-12 (Atlanta has a 7-5 structure) went to school for three 12-week quarters and one 10-week summer quarter. They could attend any three of the four quarters — or all four if they wanted an accelerated program. Each successfully completed quarter course netted the student five credit hours. The maximum load was set at six courses per quarter, with 375 credit hours needed for graduation. Since the Carnegie Unit was abandoned, 15 Fulton County credit hours were given status equal to one traditional Carnegie Unit, for students transferring into and out of the district.

Valley View's 45-15: The 45-15 plan actually is a modification of the staggered four-quarter plan in which students attend school for a mandatory three quarters determined by the school administration, then

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Cost feasibility: traditional term vs. the 45-15 plan

Even at this point in time, and after many past feasibility studies, it is still unclear whether a year-round plan will or will not save money. Mostly, it depends on what kind of plan you're talking about and what your district looks like.

Some new light was shed on the situation four months ago when Plymouth Joint School District #8, Plymouth, Wis., completed an 11-month study comparing cost variables for the present traditional 180-day program with those for a projected 45-15 model for the next five years. Though no decision has as yet been made on a year-round plan for this K-12 district with approximately 2,600 students, Plymouth planners were somewhat surprised at how much more a 45-15 plan would actually cost.

Before the compilation of figures was started, several general assumptions were made: (1) economic trends affecting the cost of materials and services would be the same for both methods of operation; (2) educational and pupil services would remain comparable; (3) enrollment would increase by about two per cent a year over the next five years.

Specific assumptions were also made.

For the *traditional* term program: (1) teacher-pupil ratios would remain about the same; (2) a building program for additional classrooms at the elementary and secondary levels would be undertaken during the next five years. (See explanatory note #8 on facing page.)

For the *year-round* program: (1) efficient year-round operation of schools would require that buildings be air conditioned; (2) all children within a given family would attend school at the same time; (3) necessary statutory changes would be enacted so that state aid on a per pupil/per day basis would be unchanged.

Common cost factors such as salaries of staff members employed on an annual basis, utility costs common to both plans, most insurance and employe fringe benefits, and other common costs do not appear in the comparisons at right. The chart is *not* a total budget projection, but a comparison of the variable factors only, broken out on an annual basis.

Variable Factors	Traditional		Year-Round School	
Increased administrative costs[1]	—		add	$4,530.00
Increase for part-time principals and for vacation periods of full-time principals[2]	—		add	4,172.00
Services of specialized personnel required year-round (based on 1970-1971 salaries)[3]	—		add	40,000.00
Less summer school program instruction	—		deduct	8,413.00
Less summer school transportation	—		deduct	2,700.00
Extended health & attendance service	—		add	208.00
Additional travel for special teachers[4]	—		add	600.00
Operation of plant[5]				
Custodial	add	$9,000.00	add	12,000.00
Extra supplies	add	1,150.00	add	425.00
Utilities (year-round figure includes power for air conditioning)	add	3,550.00	add	12,500.00
Maintenance[6]	—		add	200.00
Student activities[7]	—		add	1,000.00
Debt service				
Traditional term[8]	add	46,575.00	—	—
Year-round program[9]	—		add	30,000.00
Transportation of private school children[10]	—		add	5,400.00
Start up costs ($60,000)[11]	—		add	12,000.00
Totals	$60,275.00			$111,922.00
Annual difference				+$ 51,647.00
Five-year difference				+$258,235.00

EXPLANATORY NOTES

1. This includes teacher contracts, which will vary in length, have changed salary schedules, and provide extra compensation for special duties. In addition, supplementary personnel will be needed for the greater work load of the administrative staff, especially in payroll and recordkeeping.

2. Four principals in the district are not under 12-month contracts. Under a year-round plan, their contracts would have to be extended and relief provided for vacations while school is in session.

3. In specialized areas, such as foreign language and special education, there is usually only one instructor per subject or grade level. Therefore, if a subject such as Spanish is to be offered during each 45-day "semester," the instructor would have to be employed year-round. This additional cost is computed on a very conservative estimate.

4. Special subject area teachers instruct at more than one school and are reimbursed for part of their travel expenses. With a year-round program, these teachers would travel more days.

5. The added costs for the traditional program are based on the assumption that additional classrooms for elementary and middle grades will be constructed, and that the new facilities will require more custodians, janitorial supplies, and increased utility usage.

Under the year-round plan, added costs of plant operation are due to three factors: (1) the thorough, once-a-

year cleaning that is normally done during summer vacation will not be possible, and thus more custodial help will be needed to do this work during evenings throughout the year; (2) some additional personnel will have to be hired to cover vacation periods for regular custodians; (3) utility costs will obviously be higher if the buildings are open all year.

6. Classroom maintenance under a year-round plan would need to be done at night. No new maintenance workers would be required, but agreements with the local union provide that night hours worked carry a premium rate.

7. With student activities extended into the summer, additional costs would include extra transportation, equipment and pay for teachers assigned to supervise group activities.

8. Existing class space plus enrollment projections require construction of the equivalent of 18 classrooms by 1976. At $30,000 per room plus a 15 per cent allowance for equipment, this comes to $621,000. The average annual payment required to retire this obligation in 20 years at a five per cent interest charge is the amount shown.

9. The high school is the only air-conditioned building in the district. The average cost of alteration and installation of air-conditioning equipment for the other buildings ranges from $2.75 to $3.10 per square foot of floor space. An average of this rate multiplied by the size of the buildings to be air-conditioned provides the total cost of environmental control equipment. This amount, retired over a 20-year period at five per cent interest, requires the annual outlay indicated.

10. In Wisconsin, a public school district is required by law to bus parochial students in the district who live two or more miles from their own schools. Under a 45-15 plan, public school students would be grouped by transportation zones and thus there would be 15-day periods when buses would not normally enter a particular zone. If the parochial schools were not operated on a comparable year-round basis, it would still be necessary to send buses to all parts of the district at all times.

11. Most of this estimated expense would be incurred during the first two years. For comparative annual cost purposes, however, the $60,000 has been averaged out over the five-year period.

vacation for a quarter. The student population is divided into four equal groups, and no two groups vacation at the same time.

Valley View modified the basic staggered four-quarter plan by using 45-day quarters interspersed with 15-day vacation periods — in essence, 45 on, 15 off.

The Valley View district, 30 miles southwest of downtown Chicago, is a growing residential area. In 1953, it had only 53 children of school age, has approximately 7,500 now, and expects about 20,000 by 1980. Because the district had reached its limit of bonded indebtedness and could not construct new facilities, and because a survey determined that community residents would not go for double shifting, the 45-15 plan was inaugurated.

Students at five elementary schools and one junior high (Grades 7 and 8) are divided into four groups — A, B, C and D — with children from the same family assigned to the same group. By staggering entrance dates for each group every 15 days, group A completes its 45 days of instruction and starts its vacation on the day group D enrolls. Fifteen days later, when group A returns, group B starts its vacation, and so on. Only three-fourths of the student body are in school at any one time, and year-round operation increases the district's student capacity by 33 per cent without additional facilities.

Schools close for two weeks in the summer for major maintenance projects and for cycling adjustments that assure the 45-15 program will fit efficiently into the next school year's calendar.

What price year-round? Growing communities can realize considerable savings, say year-round school backers, by fully utilizing school buildings and other facilities instead of putting up new plants to accommodate rising enrollments. Besides the construction costs, they further contend that fuel, light, power, maintenance, insurance and state tax on bonds will be avoided on the "building that won't be built."

In Atlanta, however, economy was never put to the test. In fact, any voluntary year-round plan such as Atlanta's is likely to lead to an increase in costs because a district usually will find itself with an uneven number and type of students in any given term, making allocation of resources, including teachers, uneconomical. Says Atlanta Supt. John Letson, "We don't save dollars. Our goal is a better education."

In the first quarter of operation, the year-round plan cost Atlanta an extra $1.8 million.

Although endorsed by the state, the Atlanta plan still has not received state financing, but legislative efforts to get it continue. To defray part of the added operating expenses, a student who opts for four straight quarters must pay for the final term — $20 for the first subject and $18 for each succeeding subject, or $96 for a full load.

Unlike the Atlanta plan, the idea behind Valley View's 45-15 program was to save money. When 45-15 appeared, the economy theorists felt they had their proof. For Valley View, to handle its burgeoning enrollment, would have had to construct quickly 60 classrooms worth about $6 million. (The estimate has since been revised to a "tax avoidance" for the community of $7.5 million.) By keeping the school open year-round, the district increased the effective capacity of its existing buildings by one-third — getting the equivalent of the 60 classrooms and saving the construction and operating costs that would have gone with them.

However, while all that may be true, the $6 million would have been a capital expense amortized over a long period, and the real question is, did the district save any money on an annual basis? So far, all the evidence is not in. School officials say it will be six months before all the figures are available, but already some operating costs are known to be higher. Expenses for running existing buildings are higher because they are open longer; teacher salaries are up because teachers work longer (there are 22 possible contract arrangements for teachers: the district now pays on a per diem rate since all teachers do not work the same number of days); administrative costs are higher because there is a greater amount of paper work and the support staff now works year-round.

Transportation costs are higher,

too — but only slightly. Planners originally stated that under 45-15, students could be grouped by attendance zones corresponding to the A, B, C and D group schedules. That meant there would be 15-day periods when no bus would need to go into a particular zone, and as a result fewer buses would be needed and their operating costs would be lowered.

While some attendance clustering has been achieved — all rural students are in group C, for example — it has been limited at best. Clustering complications arise because all K-2 students living more than one-half mile from school must be picked up, all Grades 3-5 students residing more than one mile from school must be bused, and all Grade 6-8 students living more than one-and-a-half miles must be picked up. Valley View says it still has the same 20 buses used under the traditional schedule, and that costs are slightly higher for bus driver time and for operation.

Financial negatives: Recent feasibility studies suggest that a year-round program may not save any district a dime and in fact may push costs much higher than anybody really suspects (see Plymouth, Wis., feasibility study, page 52-53).

Here's why:

1. The basic argument — that the year-round school will save money on bricks and mortar — is misleading. The original cost of a new building, amortized over a period of time, really comprises a very insignificant amount of the total cost of education *per year*.

2. Eventually, rising enrollments in an expanding district will necessitate new construction anyway, and the costs of labor and materials may be a good deal higher five years from now.

3. If a district goes to an extended year program, its state aid per pupil reimbursement formula, usually based on average daily attendance, may be adversely affected. Under a year-round plan, average daily attendance is almost invariably lower.

4. Maintenance costs for year-round schools might increase, depending on local conditions. Nighttime maintenance, for example, usually needed in year-round programs, might be more expensive than day maintenance, in some areas.

5. For summer use, classrooms need to be air conditioned.

6. Startup money is required. Valley View solved this problem by getting a $43,000 grant from the U.S. Office of Education but it may be difficult for the average district to find this outlay.

Curriculum reform: Proponents of the year-round school are united in their belief that an extended school year will provide better educational opportunities. Closer to the truth is that whether it will depends on how it is implemented.

In Atlanta, better education is what the whole plan was all about; in Valley View, where saving dollars was the criterion, the traditional schedule was simply accommodated into four 45-day terms. No major curriculum revisions were made, although scheduling is now done by computer.

Atlanta started from scratch with curriculum. Traditional textbooks became obsolete. Teachers designed and assembled their own materials for the totally new quarter courses. More than 800 courses are now offered to Atlanta secondary students each quarter; approximately 70 per cent can be taken in any order desired. Coupled with the option of attending any three out of four quarters (or all four) the curriculum content provides tremendous variety and flexibility for the student.

By planning their programs three or four times a year, Atlanta students have a wide variety of enrichment options. The college-bound, who were locked into a pat schedule under a traditional plan, can get more supplementary courses and more course options. (Two electives per quarter is the maximum.) Students interested in in-depth study of a subject can schedule blocks of course time concurrently, something that is impractical in a regular, two-semester, 180-day program where course offerings are fragmented. And, by enrolling in all four quarters, advanced students can graduate early.

The slow learner gets a break, too. A student who fails a course can repeat it the very next quarter or take a remedial course immediately. In the very first year of Atlanta's voluntary four-quarter plan, the percentage of failing students dropped 40 per cent, saving the district more than $40,000.

The year-round program also has aided Atlanta's work with disadvantaged children. According to the Georgia State Department of Education studies before and after, the disadvantaged learn faster under year-round and more of them now complete high school.

As side benefits, Atlanta also found vandalism was reduced considerably (occupied school buildings generally have fewer incidences of this trouble) and that summers were "cooler" than when all high schoolers were on the streets at the same time.

PR and parents: Obviously, districts that want to switch to year-round schools need to sell the public, especially parents, on the idea. The summer vacation pattern is hard to break.

Atlanta didn't have that much "selling" to do because its program was voluntary. In fact, approximately 30 to 35 per cent of Atlanta students enroll in the summer quarter.

Even a voluntary program, however, can encounter difficulties — especially if parents don't understand student options. For example, Richard Van Hoose, superintendent of Jefferson County, Ky., which has copied Atlanta's plan and will initiate an elective quarter plan for Grades 1-2 next year, has received numerous calls and letters of complaint in spite of an imposing public relations program. One housewife even thought the idea "ungodly" because her children always go to Bible school in summer.

When Valley View first considered the 45-15 plan, it took a public opinion poll. The results: 10 per cent favored the plan; 1 per cent opposed it; 89 per cent had no opinion or wanted to reserve judgment. The conclusion: no inherent community

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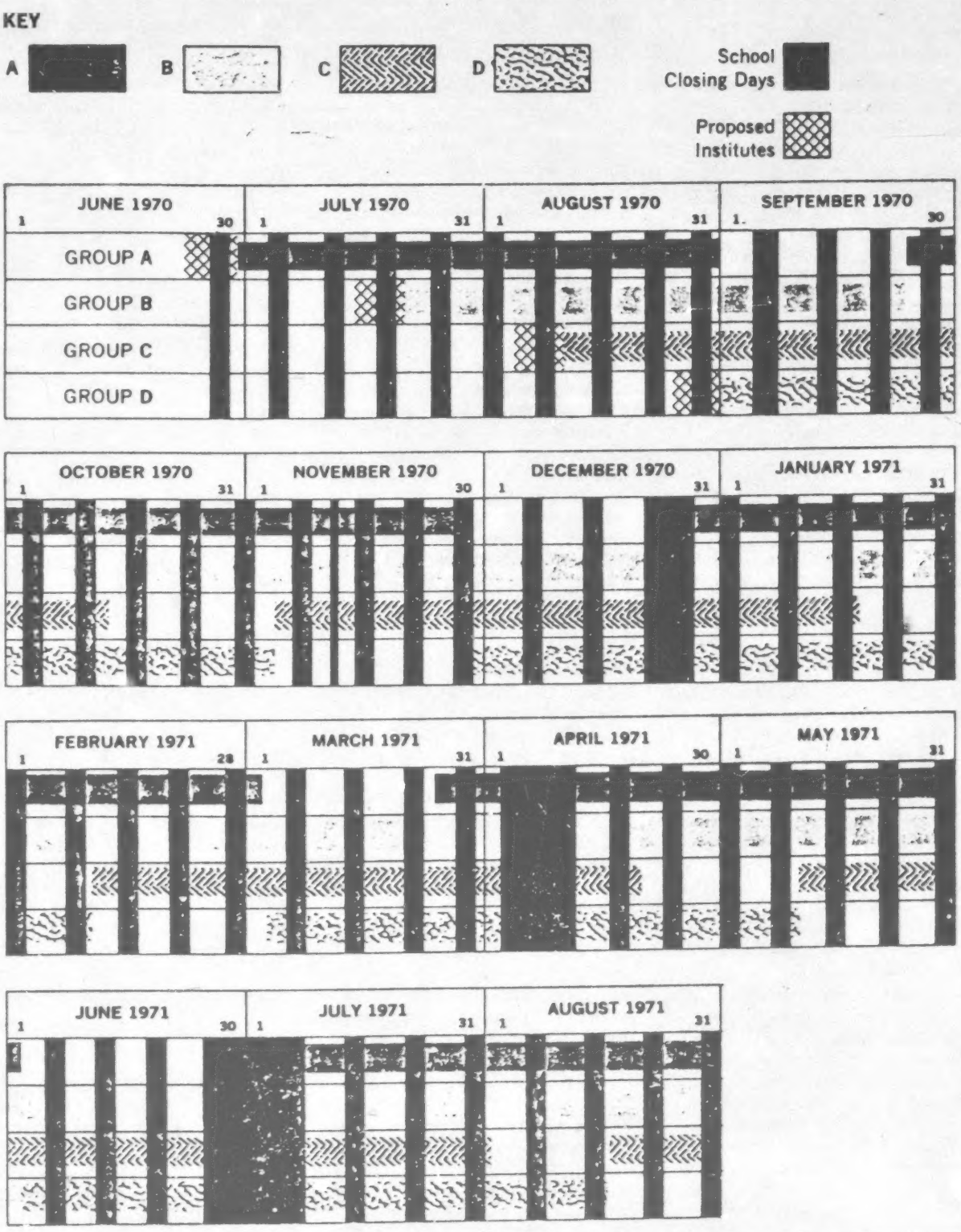
This is how Valley View's 45-15 plan appeared graphically for the 1970-71 school year. Colored and patterned bars reading across the calendar represent student class time (see key to chart). Vertical black bars represent days school is closed for holidays, weekends, and summer adjustment period. Note time alloted for teacher orientation ("proposed institutes" in key) prior to the start of each group's school year.

VALLEY VIEW 45-15 PLAN

DEVELOPED BY SCHOOL DISTRICT NO. 96, LOCKPORT, ILLINOIS



WORK EXPERIENCE SHOULD BE YEAR-ROUND, TOO

In these days of high unemployment, it makes less sense than ever for the nation's secondary schools to dump hundreds of thousands of kids onto the job market every June — whether the teenagers are looking for full-time work or summer employment.

Most year-round school plans, with their multiple graduation times and opportunities for acceleration, offer the alternative of placing students in jobs at different times of the year, thus mitigating the annual June competition, helping industry, and making better use of community resources.

Rupert N. Evans, professor of vocational and technical education at the University of Illinois, claims that summer jobs and volunteer work aren't real or meaningful for students anyway. The kids usually learn bad habits and attitudes, says Evans, and in the case of a volunteer program like the "candy stripers" (volunteer nurse's aides), kids are introduced to the glamour side of the job and not the nitty-gritty work.

Evans advocates three very intriguing proposals, each tied to the extended school year concept, which would alleviate the annual glut on the job market and at the same time provide for better education:

Open entry-open exit: Students can enroll at any time during the year and leave at any time, providing their objectives have been met. This plan is currently being tried by 19 Skill Centers operated by public school systems under the Manpower Development Training Act.

Multiple graduations: Simply stated, if a school has four or more graduations per year with vacations spread around the calendar, there will be fewer people competing for summer jobs.

No time limit plan: Students are kept in school only until they are ready to leave. This is based on the theory that there are individual differences in the rate of learning and thus some students are ready to leave earlier than others. The plan leads to a declining student-teacher ratio as the year continues. It is most adaptable to vocational-technical training where students can be placed in jobs throughout the school year.

Even if Evans' plans are not adopted, any type of staggered vacation schedule should lead to greater work opportunities for students and more meaningful job experiences.

opposition. Now, with the help of a favorable article in *Parade*, the national Sunday magazine supplement, Valley View's 45-15 has actually become a source of community pride as well.

What teachers think: Certainly year-round schools pose fewer teaching problems in a secondary school than in an elementary school because older students adapt more readily to change.

Atlanta's Letson claims the year-round program has led to a more well-rounded teaching staff because the option of working full-time has drawn a greater number of male teachers into the system. And, although the district guarantees at least three quarters of work for teachers, the quarter plan has attracted a few semi-retired teachers who want to take on only one or two quarters a year.

The situation is not that positive in Valley View. Although teachers there certainly welcomed the opportunity to earn more, some, according to an article in the Illinois Education Association publication, are "confused" about 45-15 and others believe the shorter terms cause impersonality in student-teacher relationships.

Other stumbling blocks: To achieve reasonable efficiency under a four-quarter plan, districts must be able to divide students into four equal groups. That means dividing not only the total enrollment for each quarter, but also the number enrolled in each elementary grade and in each high school subject, plus a relatively equal number of boys and girls.

The Atlanta plan was not designed to achieve such scheduling efficiency. Valley View, however, was — and has done so, from all reports. Nevertheless, 45-15, as presently structured, probably would not work in districts with enrollments so small that they would lack sufficient students to justify at least one class for every grade level during each 45-day period.

Another potential difficulty: An elementary school on 45-15, or any kind of staggered plan for that matter, may feed into a traditional term high school, causing some extended time lags for students between Grades 8 and 9.

Recognizing this problem, Valley View officials recently asked for and received a $10,000 grant from the U.S. Office of Education to convert Romeoville High School to 45-15 in July of next year. And voters in the district have approved an $8 million bond issue, plus an increase of 53 cents per $100 of assessed value in the educational tax rate, for construction of a new 45-15 high school in the next three years.

One problem neither Atlanta or Valley View had to deal with is the "star quarterback" syndrome. That syndrome means that if a high school on a year-round plan has an outstanding football player, he better be enrolled in the fall term or the entire community will revolt. The problem pertains to all sorts of student activities difficult to schedule under a staggered system. If coaches did the scheduling, athletes wouldn't have vacations when their sport is in season. And the bandmaster, debate coach, and academic teachers interested in certain scholarship examinations and scholastic events would insist on pupil attendance during favorite terms.

Because the Atlanta program is voluntary, students resolve their own academic and extracurricular conflicts. For Valley View elementary school, the problem simply didn't exist, but Romeoville High School may find out that 45-15 causes more individual student scheduling problems than it bargained for.

Any takers? In all, despite their touted successes, the extended school year programs in Atlanta and Valley View should not be considered THE year-round models.

Atlanta has demonstrated that a voluntary plan can work, but only if district officials are willing to pay a high price for it. Valley View has shown than a district can avoid the expense of a new building, but has yet to prove that any over all cost saving results.

Neither plan can be adopted lock, stock and barrel by schoolmen toying with the year-round school idea, unless they consider cost factors, curriculum and local conditions. If they jump on the bandwagon with carbon copies, 1971 may go down only as the year of the big year-round fad. ■